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WORTH NOTING

☐ EEO PLANS of Federal agencies are now taking shape under detailed requirements issued by the U.S. Civil Service Commission. The Commission acted under authority of the Equal Employment Opportunity Act of 1972, which brings Federal employees and agencies under EEO provisions of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 for the first time.

The law directs Federal agencies to submit national and regional equal employment opportunity plans to the Commission for review and approval. Plans must include training and education programs for upward mobility, certification that officials managing agency EEO programs measure up to Commission standards, and information on the size of staff and the amount of money devoted to the agency EEO program.

☐ LABOR-MANAGEMENT guidelines for Federal agencies were issued jointly by the Office of Management and Budget and the Civil Service Commission during September. Their objective: to provide all agency representatives with a clear statement of management policy and philosophy concerning labor relations. President Nixon marked the tenth anniversary of the Federal labor relations program with a memorandum to the heads of all departments and agencies, endorsing the OMB-CSC guidelines and telling agency heads: "If we can make this program work better, we can make Government work better."

☐ The RALPH NADER Public Interest Research Group report on civil service has been answered by Chairman Robert E. Hampton in testimony before the investigations subcommittee of the House Committee on Post Office and Civil Service. Mr. Hampton testified that the 500-page report "is full of distortions, inaccuracies, and innuendo that constitute unworthy scholarship." The Chairman stated that whatever merit might be in the report is far outweighed by its shortcomings.

Mr. Hampton pointed out that the Nader team had frankly admitted, when interviewing Vice Chairman Jayne B. Spain, that their study method

(Continued—See Inside Back Cover)

SELF-REFORM IN THE 70'S

THE CHANGING CIVIL SERVICE

by
Bernard Rosen
Executive Director
U.S. Civil Service Commission

THE FEDERAL CIVIL SERVICE—like the society it serves and in many respects mirrors—has been changing and growing in complexity at an accelerated rate. It is no longer sufficient just to carry out current missions and meet crises as they arise: the challenge we face is to anticipate problems on the horizon and to develop solutions *before* serious situations are upon us.

The need to devise new methods and techniques to foresee and manage change arises from a number of forces at work in the 1970's. Our society has been going through a time of turmoil, questioning of basic values and established institutions, and pressures on the status quo everywhere.

Governments at all levels have come under fire as archaic, unresponsive, and unable to keep up with changes in society and technology. Demands for change and improvements have been voiced by many segments of society—minorities, women, youth, labor, and others. Government response has not always been successful or timely. Many citizens feel the system is not working effectively—and some say that it can't work.

To assure relevance and responsiveness, institutions need constant reexamination—not only in the context of what's happening at a given time, but also in the perspective of what's in the offing.

Over the years the Civil Service Commission and the merit concept have often demonstrated their adaptability to accommodate to changing requirements. But the pace at which we have responded in the past is just not fast enough today—nor will it be tomorrow.

Consequently the Commission has had to become increasingly future oriented and organized to assure that we have the ability not only to meet current requirements, but also to foresee and be ready to meet the demands of the future.

Recently, the Commission has been subjecting its policies, programs, and procedures to thorough scrutiny, against the background of what has been happening in the country. While we have been carrying out current missions and meeting crisis situations, we have also been developing our capability for advance planning.

From Patchwork to Planning

Our present approach to planning to meet identifiable future requirements evolved from Civil Service Commission Chairman Robert Hampton's appraisal of the state of the Federal personnel system early in 1969. He noted that, while many advances had been made in the years before he took the Commission's reins, most of the changes had been patchwork and piecemeal. He perceived the need for subjecting the entire system to searching review.

Following that review, a number of improvements were made in the system and studies launched to bring needed change in other areas. Significant changes and studies included:

☐ A greatly strengthened and improved equal employment opportunity program under Executive Order 11478, with emphasis on the integration of equal opportunity into all aspects of personnel operations and on upward mobility.

☐ An improved labor-management relations charter under Executive Order 11491, including clarification of the Commission's role as management consultant.

☐ New directions and emphasis in evaluation of personnel management in Federal agencies.

☐ Development of the Federal Executive Service proposal for a new personnel system covering the upper executive levels.

☐ Improvements in the Commission's field structure

to improve service to the public and to agencies.

☐ Review and improvement of appeals and grievance systems.

☐ Authorization of Veterans Readjustment Appointments to further assist Vietnam era veterans.

☐ Review of and improvements in reduction-in-force regulations.

In addition, during this period vital legislation was enacted dealing with pay comparability, financing the retirement system, intergovernmental personnel, and authorization for a far-reaching study of job evaluation.

An important outgrowth of that major review of the personnel system was the realization that the pace of events having an impact on Federal personnel administration required something more than periodic examination of the system. It became clear that to assure timely self-reform we had to develop new mechanisms for looking long-range at the system and its components to identify developing problems and plan how to solve them.

The Commission's functional organization had been well designed to carry on the daily work but not for future-directed problem perception and institutional self-reform—particularly where problems cut across organizational lines. Therefore, one criterion for a means of dealing with long-range problems was that it provide for effective lateral coordination of policy and program initiatives and, as needed, for broad organizational commitment of resources to advance planning efforts.

The solution was the Executive Planning Group approach, initiated in June 1971.

The Executive Planning Group (EPG) is made up of a small number of the Commission's top career executives; I am privileged to serve as Chairman of the group.

The purpose of the EPG is to assure that our planning begins with consideration of the Commission's basic responsibilities and programs, proceeds with a recognition of the crosscurrents and interaction between them, and moves with a unity of purpose toward identified institutional goals. Through weekly meetings, the Executive Planning Group monitors and helps focus major planning and study activities.

As an extension of the EPG, three standing committees were formed—with members drawn from the Commission's Executive Staff—to concentrate on major areas of personnel management which cut across the Commission's functional organization. One committee is concerned with the broad area of staffing the executive branch; another deals with improvement of manpower utilization Government-wide; and the third focuses on the economic considerations related to personnel management programs and proposals.

The EPG and the three continuing committees are augmented, as necessary, by task forces drawing on staff specialists to conduct studies and develop action plans in areas identified by the EPG. The task force members are detailed temporarily to work on a project and are relieved as their part of the project is completed. Thus, individual regular work assignments are not upset, and our functional organization is not disrupted.

Areas of Major Emphasis

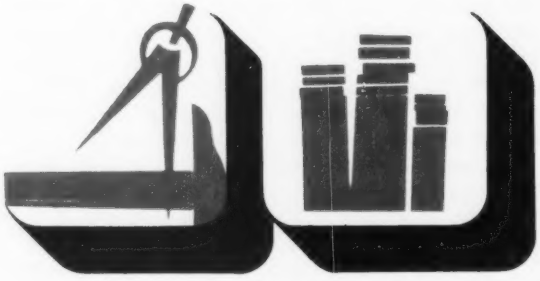
A principal output of the EPG's crystal-ball gazing is the identification of areas it believes the Commission should subject to thorough study during the year. These are discussed with the Commissioners. Upon approval of the Commissioners, they become areas of major emphasis for a year or more.

Seven such areas of emphasis were approved by the Commission in Fiscal Year 1972. They were:

☐ Changing Federal personnel policies in support of labor-management relations developments.

☐ Review of the effectiveness of the appellate system.

☐ Getting better management in the Federal service through improved managers.



☐ Helping federalism work better.

☐ Assisting Federal agencies in selecting and developing people for personnel work in the seventies.

☐ Evaluating and reporting the budgetary and economic consequences of Federal personnel programs.

☐ Improving job evaluation and pay systems.

Space limitations preclude a detailed discussion of each of these important subjects, but a brief progress report will illustrate their long-range importance.

Labor-management relations—The era of bilateral relations in government has arrived, and both labor and management have felt that the area of permissible bargaining has been too narrow. The major undertaking in this area was a full examination of Commission policies and regulations to determine if any were unnecessarily restricting areas for negotiation between unions and management. A thorough review of the Federal Personnel Manual and extensive consultation with unions and agencies produced a number of recommendations for change that will clarify our policies and increase the matters on which bargaining may be done.

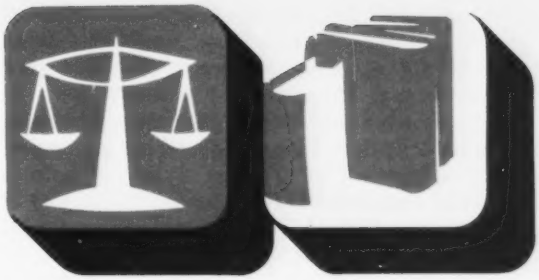
Appellate system study—No one is satisfied with the present adverse action appeals system. The objective is to develop an improved appellate system—a system that is simpler, speedier, easier to understand, and in which employees, unions, management, and the public can have full confidence. Our study is progressing concurrently with those being made by the Administrative Conference of the United States and by the General Accounting Office; our research and data are being shared with them.

We have had extensive consultation with various interested groups, and we have completed a valuable first-time statistical data base on the operation of the system. We are now evaluating alternative courses of action suggested by the data and analysis. There is little doubt that significant change in policy and process will flow from this effort.

Improving managers—How well government is able to cope with future problems will depend in good part on the quality of career managers. We have considered a wide range of subjects related to improving management by improving managers, but concentrated on three actions: (1) enhancing executive development through new guidelines to agencies and follow-up discussions with individual agencies; (2) improving availability of manpower information with the establishment of a qualifications file and the Central Personnel Data File; and (3) development of a Government-wide management training strategy looking to establishing minimum requirements for training or experience for mid-managers and executives.

Helping federalism work better—Everyone agrees that the system needs improving and recognizes the need for closer cooperation between the several levels of government. We have focused on the important role of the Federal personnel system in decentralization and on opportunities stemming from our responsibilities under the Intergovernmental Personnel Act (IPA).

Our administration of IPA grants for personnel systems improvement and for training was designed to achieve more effective State and local administration of federally funded programs. We modified training courses and expanded our personnel management evaluation to promote Federal-State-local cooperation. We are



strengthening our capability to provide technical assistance to State and local governments; and we are deeply involved in encouraging sound use of the personnel mobility provisions of the IPA.

Developing personnel people—After considering a number of possibilities for enhancing the performance of people in personnel work—skill inventories, training needs, mobility, recruiting, etc.—we have concluded that there is a need for a centrally managed career program incorporating all of these elements. The key features for such a program are now being developed in close consultation with the agencies.

Budgetary impact—Personnel costs are the biggest single factor in the national budget—even minor changes in pay or benefits have a significant impact. Our initial efforts explored the feasibility of analyzing the budgetary and economic impact of proposals for change in Federal personnel policies and in the system itself. We are now concentrating on refining our prototype to provide more useful and accurate reports and analyses for future policy planning.

Job evaluation and pay—During the year our report on the work of the Job Evaluation and Pay Review Task Force was sent to Congress. We are now pursuing two avenues for improving job evaluation and pay systems. First, we are developing and testing the factor-ranking/benchmark method of job evaluation proposed by the Task Force. Second, we are giving further study to a number of other Task Force recommendations which would require legislation.

The nature of most of the areas for emphasis during FY 1972 is such that they will continue to receive priority attention.

The Second Year

While work proceeded in all these areas during FY 1972, the EPG was continuing to identify additional areas for possible major emphasis in the future. The Commissioners considered the recommendations of the EPG and approved the following for major emphasis in FY 1973:

☐ New initiatives in carrying out the mandate of the Equal Employment Opportunity Act of 1972 at Federal, State, and local levels.

☐ Increasing public understanding of merit principles.
☐ Strengthening the management role of supervisors.
☐ Improving use of performance evaluation to make government more effective.
☐ Improving Commission-University relationships.
☐ Clarifying and enhancing the personnel officer's roles.

A short description of each follows.

EEO mandate—The Equal Employment Opportunity Act of 1972 and the Intergovernmental Personnel Act of 1970 set forth a broad requirement for action by the Civil Service Commission, Federal agencies, and State and local governments.

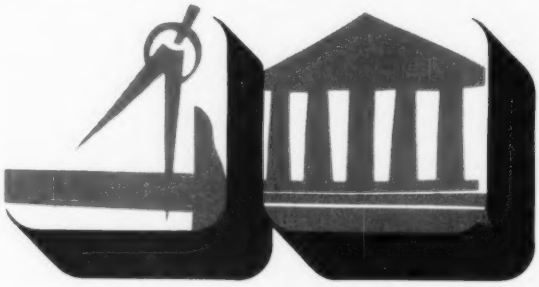
Major CSC actions for FY 1973 include developing and issuing new policy guidance; updating, developing, and providing training materials and assistance where needed; sharpening the role unions might play in supporting affirmative EEO activities; emphasizing EEO programs in evaluation of personnel operations; expanding ADP files on EEO statistics; reviewing key tests and qualifications standards to eliminate any cultural bias; reviewing the overall personnel system to identify any nonmerit hinderances to the employment and upward mobility of minorities and women; and significantly expanding CSC technical assistance to State and local governments.

Fostering understanding of merit principles—There has been increasing criticism of merit systems from quarters both within and outside government, along with erosion of support within public service organizations and academia. There is inadequate recognition of the need for application of basic merit principles to insure fairness and equality of treatment to all citizens. Too often, requirements and procedures which at best have nothing to do with merit principles, and at worst

are anti-merit, masquerade under the merit system banner. We are intensifying efforts to make public personnel practices accord with merit principles in Federal, State, and local governments and we will take steps to achieve better public understanding of merit principles as fundamental public policy.

Improving supervisors—Executive Order 11491 requires that each agency establish systems for communication and consultation with supervisors. There is a need to insure that supervisors are treated as an integral part of the management team.

The Commission is proposing a number of steps to strengthen supervisors' identification with management: developing clear definitions of supervisory roles, functions, and authority; encouraging specific delegation of managerial responsibilities to supervisors; considering various forms of recognition of management and how these might be applied wisely to supervisors; and developing guidance on effective communication systems within the management chain of command on both management and labor relations matters.



Performance management—Performance evaluation has long been a problem area in the public and private sectors. Evaluation methods are being analyzed and recommendations will be made for improving performance evaluation to make government more effective.

The study is considering performance evaluation not only for rating people for promotions, pay increases, rewards, assignments, etc., but also for counseling employees to improve their individual contributions to organizational effectiveness. We are analyzing existing systems and exploring some of the advanced thinking on the subject. We will consider feasible and desirable alternatives for incorporating new performance evaluation policies and systems into the performance management actions of agencies.

CSC-University relations—Interaction between government and universities has increased in recent years. All aspects of the Commission's relationships with universities are being reviewed with a view to making our relations more useful to the universities and the Commission.

The review will consider the Commission's direct and indirect relationships with universities, including Schools of Public and Business Administration, concerning the development of the following university services related to manpower functions: pre-entry accredited education; post-entry nonaccredited education/training; sources of skilled manpower (graduates and faculty); basic research—both general management and manpower management; and applied research/problem solving—both general management and manpower management. The review will give special attention to the responsibilities of the Commission for providing channels of informa-

tion to the universities from both the Commission and agencies on current government programs, new management systems, and staffing needs.

Roles of personnel officers—Current and future functions and responsibilities of the personnel officer as an essential contributor to the management team are being reviewed and analyzed. The purpose of the review is to clarify and enhance the role of the personnel officer as a member of the top management group, and to gain acceptance of that role by managers throughout government. Special attention is being given to the roles of the personnel officer as a member of the management team and his ability to serve as the central professional source of knowledge in advising top management on all matters relating to manpower resources.

Most of these emphasis areas reflect systematic anticipation of long-range needs—both internal and external. The Executive Planning Group represents for the Civil Service Commission a new mechanism that compels principal CSC executives to devote personal attention to emerging policy, program, and priority problems and to commit sufficient resources to undertake a serious attack on these problems.

Experience with this new approach to long-range problem identification and solution has given us spin-off benefits in our planning in functional areas. Each CSC program head, with key members of his staff, now takes time out at least once a year to peer 4 or 5 years into the future to identify long-range goals. Having done this, he keeps firmly in mind current needs, problems, and available resources, together with long-range goals.

From there on out, his objectives constitute a roadmap to the future for his program for the year ahead. This not only keeps the Commission on top of the present, but also brings about conscious consideration of changes to insure that the nature and extent of any detours are carefully considered in terms of future goals.

On the Horizon

The 5-year program projections of our bureaus and staff offices show that more constructive changes in the personnel system are on the horizon. Here are just a few illustrations of what our program heads foresee as future developments—

☐ The Bureau of Recruiting and Examining is looking to installing a completely "open" recruiting and examining system, allowing application for any kind of job at any time and enabling appointing officers to give concurrent consideration to candidates from all sources—new applicants, displaced employees, agency employees, employees of all other agencies, intergovernmental exchange candidates, etc.—to select the best qualified and available person.

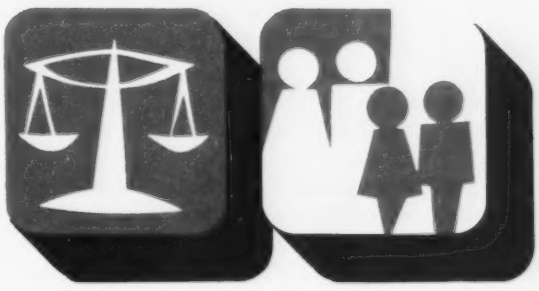
☐ The Bureau of Training has developed a strategy for training enabling the Commission to provide reimbursable training for more than twice as many Federal, State, and local government employees by 1977 as in 1971. Its analysis of past experience, on which future projections were partially based, showed that interagency training provided by CSC was the only type of training available to agencies that increased markedly in each of the 5 years from 1967 through 1971—with 36,400 employees attending CSC courses in 1967 and almost 100,000 in 1972. In 1971, 7,000 State and local employees attended CSC-conducted courses; in 1972, the total increased to 11,000. By 1977, CSC may well have to be prepared to provide training to an estimated 200,000 people from all levels of government.

☐ The Bureau of Personnel Management Evaluation is working toward increasing and closer cooperation with the Office of Management and Budget in projects to improve general Federal management, and with CSC's Bureau of Intergovernmental Personnel Programs to provide program evaluation and personnel management advisory service to State and local governments at their request.

☐ The Bureau of Intergovernmental Personnel Programs is planning an exchange system for assembling information on results of State and local technical assistance and grant projects and communicating useful information to other States and localities.

Secretary of Commerce Peterson recently observed: "One yardstick I have found useful in assessing the real strength of a company is how much time its very best people could devote to the future." The Civil Service Commission would now rate a high mark on that yardstick. We are convinced that the time we are giving to anticipating and planning to meet future events not only is necessary but will pay off in assuring that the Federal personnel system is up to date and better able to meet whatever requirements the future may hold.

For nearly 90 years, the Commission and the merit concept have been able to adapt to needs of changing times. With these two institutions approaching their centennial, our objective is to assure that they continue to be viable and valuable to the Nation as it enters the third century of the great American experiment in representative government.



Legal Decisions

Political Activity

In *National Association of Letter Carriers, AFL-CIO et al.* v. *U.S. Civil Service Commission,* District Court, District of Columbia, July 31, 1972, a two-to-one decision of a special three-judge court has declared unconstitutional 5 U.S.C. §7324(a) (2), that part of the "Hatch Act" prohibiting Federal employees from taking an active part in political management or in political campaigns. The court felt that the provisions of the Act are vague and overly broad when measured against the requirements of the First Amendment to the Constitution.

Section 15 of the Act incorporates the Commission's pre-1940 determinations as to what activities constituted political management and political campaigning. While generally laudatory of Commission enforcement of the Act, the court was of the opinion that the prohibitions are worded in generalities and lack precision, and that the Act is capable of sweeping and uneven application.

The court concluded that "any conscientious public servant concerned for the security of his job and conscious of that latent power in his supervisor to discipline him . . . must feel continuously in doubt as to what he can do or say politically. The result is unacceptable when measured by the need to eliminate vagueness and overbreadth in the sensitive area of free expression." The court enjoined enforcement of the Act but, on its own volition, granted a stay of its order pending a final determination by the Surpreme Court.

Suitability—Homosexuality

Two cases have been decided in recent months concerning homosexuals in Federal employment. In *Wentworth* v. *Laird,* District Court, District of Columbia, May 26, 1972, an employee of Bell Laboratories had his security clearance withdrawn by the Industrial Security Clearance Review Office (ISCRO) on the grounds of his homosexuality. The court refused to uphold that withdrawal on the basis that no nexus or rational connection was shown between the fact of the homosexuality and the plaintiff's ability to safeguard classified information.

He had widely published the fact of his homosexuality and was not subject to blackmail on that account, and further he had been entrusted with classified information for 13 years without incident. According to the court, the plaintiff had been asked shockingly personal questions about his sex life and since no nexus had been shown between the information sought and national security, his First Amendment rights had been violated.

However, questions regarding an employee's personal life are permissible when it is shown that the answers to those questions are necessary to safeguard the efficiency of the service. In *Richardson* v. *Hampton,* District Court, District of Columbia, July 13, 1972, plaintiff had been discharged from the Post Office Department in 1965 for being "attracted to others of your sex" which was causing "resentment from fellow employees" and "two occasions of emotional outbursts or seizures." He was also barred by the Commission from Federal employment for 3 years on the ground that "evidence of your homosexual activities makes you unsuitable for Federal employment."

After the passage of 3 years, he again applied for Federal employment and was told that his application would not be considered unless he could show "affirmative evidence of rehabilitation." When he refused to sign releases authorizing two of his private physicians to furnish information relating to his suitability, the Commission refused to consider his application further.

The court held that the Commission was within its rights to refuse to consider the 1969 application until plaintiff furnished the requested information.

Although previous decisions have shown that the Government must prove a strong interest before inquiring into an individual's sexual behavior, the Government also has an interest in protecting job efficiency by refusing to employ persons who would have a deleterious effect on the service. There may be instances, the court said, where homosexual conduct could adversely affect the efficiency of the service, such as unorthodox sexual behavior or unwelcome overtures on the job.

Considering plaintiff's past history, which included at least one incident of homosexual solicitation on the job, the court felt that the Commission was within its rights to make reasonable inquiry and to refuse to consider the applicant when it received no answers. The court dismissed the case without prejudice to the plaintiff's reapplication on condition that he agree to answer reasonable questions. The burden was placed on the Government to make a finding after investigation, as to whether or not plaintiff's homosexual tendencies would interfere with his performance or that of his fellow employees.

Removal—Cause

Two agencies have failed to convince the courts that they acted properly in removing an employee for cause.

In *Ciambelli* v. *United States,* Court of Claims, May 12, 1972, plaintiff, an IRS agent, was removed for alleged violations of IRS regulations forbidding association with disreputable persons. The court concluded that plaintiff was unaware that IRS was investigating a certain disreputable person with whom plaintiff supposedly associated until just prior to his final association, and that a sudden termination of the association would have raised the suspicions of the person being investigated.

The court further concluded that since plaintiff had no specific assignment related to the person being investigated (which would have called for disqualifying himself from the assignment), the one association subsequent to plaintiff's being notified of the investigation did not constitute substantial evidence upon which to remove him. The court felt, moreover, that the facts relied upon by IRS, which the agency claimed should have put plaintiff on notice of the investigation, were not sufficient to give such notice and were more in the nature of a trap. He was granted back pay from the time of his removal.

In *Burroughs* v. *Hampton,* District Court, E.D. Virginia, July 10, 1972, a civilian pilot with the Army had been removed on several charges including falsification of official flight time records, not maintaining proper fuel reserves, failure to properly report an accident, etc. The court held there was no substantial evidence in the record to support the charges and, therefore, the agency had acted in an arbitrary and capricious manner.

Army regulations provide that investigations for purposes of accident prevention and safety are to be kept entirely separate from those done to determine culpability, and that no accident prevention report can be used to determine negligence or culpability on the part of the individual directly involved.

The court concluded that since the officer who conducted the aircraft safety investigations of plaintiff's two accidents participated as agency representative at the removal hearing before the Civil Service Commission, plaintiff had been denied a fair trial and, further, that an element of potential bias existed. With regard to this dual role of investigator and agency representative at the hearing, the court stated: "He thus was placed in the position of a prosecutor who had an interest in the proceedings." Plaintiff was ordered reinstated with back pay.

Resignation

Manzi v. *United States,* Court of Claims, May 12, 1972. When an employee is, without the knowledge of the agency, mentally ill at the time of his resignation and later attempts to retract the resignation presenting evidence of his mental illness at that time, the agency should accept the retraction. In this case, plaintiff returned to the agency 3 months after his resignation and attempted to retract the resignation presenting evidence to the agency that he had been mentally unsound at the time. The agency refused to accept the retraction.

The court said that the "compassionate and practical" principles of FPM supplement 752–1, section S2g(6), apply providing that resignation by a person whose mental condition precludes him from exercising free will or understanding the transaction is involuntary and, therefore, void. The court went on to say that these principles apply "even where, as in this case, the agency officials who accepted plaintiff's resignation were not aware of his condition at the time, for the test is the employee's actual condition rather than the employer's knowledge of it."

EEO—Testing

In yet another decision bearing upon the possibility of discrimination in governmental testing practices, the District Court for the District of Columbia, in *Davis* v. *Washington,* July 31, 1972, held that the examination given for policemen in the District of Columbia is not discriminatory against Black applicants.

The court maintained that the examination is reasonably related to job performance in that it accurately measures those qualities necessary for success in the police recruit training program. The court emphasized the importance of that training program in preparing trainees for the responsibilities and expertise required of a modern-day policeman. Further, it held that extensive recruiting activities within the Black community indicate no desire to discriminate against Black applicants, nor is there any evidence that the examination so operates.

—Sandra Shapiro

Is testing fair for all?

NEW ANSWERS ON EMPLOYMENT

by William A. Gorham • Associate Director • Personnel Research and Development Center • U.S. Civil Service Commission

THE OFT-EXPRESSED BELIEF that written tests used to select people for employment are biased against minorities has been found to be wrong.

Opponents of testing had for a long time contended so forcibly that written tests are biased against minority workers that testers had begun to believe it. But there was a big gap between belief and proof.

The Educational Testing Service, in conjunction with the Civil Service Commission, has completed a major 6-year study on this issue. The study, which related test scores to job performance for Caucasians, Blacks, and Mexican-Americans in three skilled occupations, revealed that carefully selected tests predict job performance *fairly* for members of varied ethnic groups.

Setting the Stage

The job testing study grew out of a series of meetings between the staff of the Educational Testing Service and the Civil Service Commission, under the leadership of the man then serving as ETS President, Henry Chauncey, and the then CSC Chairman, John Macy. At that time, 1965, concern for the fairness of testing practices was a major topic on many fronts. Discontent with tests as perceived barriers to selection and promotion of employees, both in industry and government, was widespread among minority groups.

In these ETS-CSC staff discussions, there was complete agreement that these concerns were legitimate and that the objective of improving the use of tests was desirable. At the same time, there was worry that the various proposals for immediately replacing tests or modifying their use might increase discrimination problems in hiring practices, rather than reduce them, by adopting alternatives that would lock out minorities even more strongly.

Problems for Researchers

In designing a research plan, there was a real ques-

TESTS

tion as to whether it was practicable to conduct research of the scope that would have a chance of getting some definitive answers to these problems. Others had made attempts and encountered many difficulties, so that there were no definitive studies at that time. In fact, the very definition of fairness or bias was in doubt.

The ETS-CSC conferees did know that certain conditions were necessary to the research: sizeable groups of minority and non-minority employees had to be located. The test groups had to be made up of employees having similar jobs and common supervision, similar career paths to their current jobs, and no direct screening by employment tests.

They knew, too, that a variety of job performance measures would have to be found or developed so that the validity of tests for *different* criteria could be investigated. And there was some question as to whether we could expect the cooperation of agency management and supervisors—and of the employees themselves—for the heavy commitment of time and interest demanded.

With funding from the Ford Foundation, the ETS and CSC partnership began to tackle these feasibility problems by making an actual study in the Veterans Administration of the occupation of medical technician. It was found, after a long study of these technicians, that such research studies were feasible. The Commission and ETS went back to the Ford Foundation and obtained the funding for ETS to conduct the other studies.

The Questions

The studies were designed to answer the following questions:

- ☐ Are aptitude tests valid? Do persons who do well on the tests also do well on the job and vice versa? Can you really predict job performance with an aptitude test or tests?
- ☐ Are aptitude tests valid for minority group members? Do the tests reach the same level of validity for both minority and non-minority group members?
- ☐ Do minority group members on the average score as well on aptitude tests as others do? Do they do as well as others on measures of job performance?
- ☐ And finally—the crucial and complicated question, answerable only by combining the results from all of the preceding questions—does the use of aptitude tests unfairly discriminate against members of any group?

The Sample

In looking at occupations included under the General Schedule, we found several in which there were comparable samples of minority and non-minority group members who had not been selected on the basis of aptitude tests. In addition to medical technicians, we included cartographic technicians and inventory managers in the study. In these three occupations a total of 1,409 people were studied, including 423 Blacks, 174 Mexican-Americans, and 812 Caucasians. These studies taken *in toto* are the largest reported to date relating to the issue of test fairness conducted in a civilian work milieu.

Substantial background information was collected on those studied. The reason for this is easy to see with an example: If one group—for example, Blacks—had educational achievement significantly lower than Caucasians, then this might influence any differences in test scores and job performance. Age, source of training, experience, etc., might have similar effects. The samples of people selected were generally comparable with respect to a number of quantifiable background variables so that they do not appear to have influenced the results.

In the next step, the Educational Testing Service studied each job carefully to insure that all ethnic groups in an occupation were performing essentially the same kind of work. If, for example, Black medical technicians had been involved in more routine tasks than Caucasians, some difficulties would have occurred in comparing groups. Generally, this did not pose a problem. The findings indicated that different ethnic groups do about the same things, and about as often.

The job analyses performed by the ETS staff were extremely thorough, and it is on these thorough job analyses that the success of the studies lies. The job analyses were used in several ways:

☐ First, as we have seen, to insure that members of the various ethnic groups in the samples were indeed doing the same job.

☐ Second, as a basis for developing measures of job performance against which to judge the validity of tests.

☐ Third, as a basis for selecting aptitude tests that reflected the abilities necessary to do the job in each one of the three occupations.

Thus, sound job analyses were crucial to the study.

Selection of Tests

The kinds of tests chosen on the basis of job analysis were for the most part experimental tests designed only for research use. However, they are typical of employment tests. Some CSC tests also were used, including the Federal Service Entrance Examination. A different set of tests was used for each occupation, covering a wide range of abilities required for each.

Measuring Job Performance

To measure job performance for each of the three occupations, ETS first developed a special set of supervisory rating scales tailored to each occupation. There are many problems with these—even in research. Therefore, a special effort also was made to develop objective work sample measures for each of the three occupations.

Although it would seem on the surface a simple task to develop work samples, this is one of the most challenging (and expensive) ways to try to get an objective measure of performance. For example, it was difficult to develop work sample exercises for the medical technician which would reliably reflect performance on routine lab tasks. After much time and expense, in fact, it was found that for medical technicians acceptable work samples as job performance measures could not be developed within the time and resources available.

As an additional job performance measure, where feasible, a job knowledge test was developed with great care.

For each occupation there were at least two types of performance measures: In all cases one subjective measure consisting of ratings and the other an objective measure consisting of job knowledge tests or work samples, or both.

The work sample for cartographic technicians involved several parts which actually simulated map-making work. For example, technicians were asked to construct a full map of an area when they were given only some of the information regarding characteristics of the terrain. This is the same kind of situation which often occurs on the job when aerial photographs are used as a basis for map-making. These were capable of being scored using objective methods. A work simulation exercise, which could be objectively scored, also was developed for inventory managers.

Collecting the Data

After ETS had developed the performance measures and selected the tests, they were administered with the cooperation of agencies and employees throughout the country. It took each participant from a day to a day and a half to take the tests and complete the work simulation exercises.

This discussion of the studies should not obscure the fact that many troublesome conceptual and administrative issues were confronted. In all fairness, everything was not rosy. Despite thorough briefings, employees were sometimes suspicious. In one installation, a number of minority and non-minority employees refused to cooperate and walked out. While not crippling the research, the incident raises questions for the future.

Analyzing the Data

After test and job performance data were collected, a long round of statistical analyses was begun. First, average scores for each test and each criterion or job performance measure were computed. Second, the validity coefficients between each test and each criterion were determined. (A validity coefficient is a coefficient of correlation; it shows mathematically the degree of relationship between two things that may vary.) On the basis of these two basic statistics, the averages and the validity coefficients, together with some other more complex statistics, comparisons among ethnic groups were made to determine the fairness of the tests.

Results

While it has been demonstrated that it is possible to do scientifically sound studies on test fairness within the Federal sector, such studies can only be done with great expense, considerable time, and the solution of numerous technical problems. Psychologists are notorious (and perhaps prosperous) for ending their research papers with ". . . more research is needed." It is questionable, however, whether the Federal Government or other employers will want to conduct many more research studies on this problem. The reasons for this lie in the answers to the questions posed earlier:

Are tests job-related?

It is clear that aptitude tests *are* likely to be valid for an occupation if the tests are selected after a careful job analysis. In this research, using three measures of job performance, a multitude of tests, and three different occupations, the researchers have reported significant validities in almost every case.

Are tests valid for minorities?

Aptitude tests valid for one group are likely to be equally valid for other groups. The general findings show that tests which work well for one ethnic group work about as well for the others. This pattern holds regardless of which measure of job success is used.

How do minorities score on tests, on job measures?

In general, minority group members do not do as well, as a group, on aptitude tests as non-minority group members. This is not a new finding; in fact, it is one reason the study was done.

However, it should be pointed out that while there are *group average* differences, many *individual* members of minority groups scored very well on these tests, and many non-minority group members did poorer than the average for minorities. There's a lot of overlap.

The average difference between groups does not in itself mean a test is unfair because minority group members also tend not to do as well when objective measures of job performance are used. In these studies, however, minorities did just about as well as non-minorities when subjective supervisory ratings were used to measure job performance.

Why this difference? In my view, the supervisory

ratings are among the best, most carefully developed and collected ones that I have ever seen. Yet they exhibited a lot of problems upon analysis. These problems were serious enough to raise a question as to the acceptability of the ratings in evaluating test fairness. In this instance, the determination of the researchers in developing objective alternatives to ratings really paid off.

Do tests unfairly discriminate?

Finally, the answer to the crucial question, "Does the use of tests unfairly discriminate against minority group members?"

There is no simple way to assess discrimination, and the statistics involved are quite complicated. In general, it may be said that discrimination occurs when groups with equal probability of success on the job have unequal probability of being selected for the job. This statement also can be reversed. Discrimination occurs when groups with equal probability of being selected have unequal probability of success on the job.

In other words, to determine whether there is unfair discrimination in testing or other selection devices, we must look at *both* test performance and job performance. We cannot consider either one alone.

In these studies, the conclusion is that tests do not unfairly discriminate against minorities. People, regardless of race, who do well on tests do well on jobs, and vice versa.

Comments

Dr. Joel T. Campbell, of ETS, who directed these studies, feels confident that should more studies be done similar results would be found. He bases this not only on these studies, but on others which have addressed the fairness issue since these began. One such study is Virginia R. Boehm's "Negro-White Differences in Validity of Employment and Training Selection Procedures: Summary of Research Evidence," in the *Journal of Applied Psychology,* Volume 56, Issue 1, 1972 (pp. 33–39).

The ETS-CSC studies will be the subject of discussion for some time to come. They already have been reviewed by a number of professionals. (See "An Investigation of Sources of Bias in the Prediction of Job Performance . . . A Six-Year Study," *Proceedings of Invitational Conference,* New York, New York, June 22, 1972, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, N.J.) Some of the comments of these professionals indicate where we now stand in this complex area:

Dr. Anne Anastasi, President, American Psychological Association:

". . . the study is in many ways a model for the validation of personnel selection tests. . . ."

Dr. Robert M. Guion, President of Division 14 (Industrial and Organizational Psychology), American Psychological Association:

". . . I would summarize the information here, and that emerging in the general literature as well, by suggesting that, as a general rule, the validity of a test against a specified criterion is likely to be about the same for all comers. There are exceptions to the rule, and there are enough exceptions that they must be taken seriously; they are, nevertheless, exceptions."

Dr. Lewis E. Albright, Kaiser Aluminum and Chemical Corporation:

". . . there have been previous indications that, in some instances, tests may actually overpredict criterion performance for minorities . . . the present studies provide considerable verification for this earlier evidence . . . this finding, together with the general absence of differential validity (cases where test validity is different for different sub-groups) in these studies, should do much to blunt the current outcry against testing by those who would interpret any difference in mean test scores as *prima facie* evidence of unfair discrimination."

Dr. S. Rains Wallace, Chairman, Department of Psychology, Ohio State University:

". . . it appears to me to be about time for us to accept the proposition that written aptitude tests, administered correctly and evaluated against reasonably reliable unbiased and relevant criteria, do about the same job in one ethnic group as in another. It seems clear that people like me who expected race to act as a moderator variable for validity relationships were wrong. It seems also clear that people who assumed that all written tests were inappropriate and unfair instruments if applied outside of the WASP culture were equally wrong."

While it is easy to conclude that the same factors affecting test performance also appear to affect job performance, that in itself is not terribly useful. As Dr. Campbell has pointed out, "Now we must learn how and why this situation develops and work to improve it."

"Are We Giving Away the Store?"

If Alvin (*Future Shock*) Toffler and others are right about the rate at which change is generally accelerating in society, the Federal personnel system could change as much in the next 10 years as it has since 1883. When we reflect on the significant personnel system changes that have occurred in the 27 years since World War II, as compared to those marking the 63 years before that, there appears to be some basis for such a forecast.

While I am not willing to predict precisely what changes may occur, I do anticipate certain things happening:

☐ The principal motivators for change in society will also affect our personnel system. These include research and development activities, advancements in technology and communications, emerging and changing occupations, as well as the civil rights, women's, and labor movements.

☐ The changes will be evolutionary, consistent with basic merit principles, and beneficial to the public interest.

☐ Some people both inside and outside government will not accept or adjust to the changes. Reactions will range from those who will say we have not gone

by
Raymond Jacobson
Director, Bureau of
Policies and Standards,
U.S. Civil Service Commission

far enough to those who will say we are giving away the store.

The next ten years of change have already begun.

During the months ahead you will be seeing a number of significant changes in the Federal Personnel Manual. They will be of two general types: changes in policy to allow labor-management bargaining on matters currently controlled by the FPM, and the use of more precise FPM language to clarify what is, or is not, negotiable.

The purpose of these changes is to promote efficiency of government operations and effectiveness of labor-management dealings. They should give management and unions opportunities to participate more directly in the personnel system's decision-making process.

I would like to share with you how these changes have come about. But first, it is important that we set the stage with some background on the purpose of the Federal Personnel Manual and the labor relations environment within which it must operate.

Regulations Galore

Contrary to popular opinion, the U.S. Civil Service Commission is not in existence solely to issue regulations which restrict freedom of action. The Commission has been given its diverse mission by various acts of Congress and the President, all having a positive purpose.

For example, the Civil Service Act of 1883 strictly curtailed the use of political influence in filling Federal jobs and provided, instead, that there should be open competition to identify and appoint the most capable applicants. Others, to note but a few—

☐ The Veterans Preference Act, providing an assist to those who were denied civilian employment opportunities during a period of military service;

☐ Laws granting health, group life insurance, and retirement benefits to Federal workers;

☐ A 1972 amendment to the Civil Rights Act requiring that "all personnel actions" in the Federal competitive service "shall be made free from any discrimination based on race, color, religion, sex, or national origin"; and

☐ Three Executive orders on labor-management relations giving Federal employees more say about conditions that affect their work lives.

Because Congress and the President want assurances that the intent of such laws and orders will be fulfilled, the Civil Service Commission is required by each to issue instructions or regulations, and to generally assure compliance.

This is where the Federal Personnel Manual comes in.

The FPM is the primary means by which the Commission transmits its guidance and regulations affecting more than 60 separate Federal agencies and nearly 3 million employees throughout the country. Despite many and frequent changes, much of its content has been around for a long time. It is the personnelist's bible; it gives him guidance on what he should and should not do.

To the supervisor or manager, the FPM can be either a millstone around his neck (when it prevents him from doing something he wants to do), or his way out of a dilemma (when it prevents him from doing something he does not want to do or when it offers constructive alternative solutions to specific problems).

Sometimes the Federal Personnel Manual is not all that clear or helpful, or in tune with the times. On the other hand, it is sometimes used as a scapegoat, and its flexibilities often are overlooked.

Bargaining Units Galore

The FPM and unionism in the Federal service have at least one thing in common—they bewilder the layman.

Even those of us who are not labor relations experts are aware that in many businesses and industries where unions represent a majority of the workers, an employer deals with a single union. And we have some notion that representatives from both sides then sit across the table from each other and negotiate such "bread and butter" items as pay, job classification, basic work week, vacations, sick leave, and other fringe benefits.

We find a much more complicated situation in Federal labor relations. The level at which most bargaining is done, and the lack of authority at that level, have had a limiting effect on what can be negotiated.

There is no single union or council of labor organizations that negotiates with the executive branch on all personnel management matters. Fifty-three percent (more than 1 million) of all executive branch employees are represented by 61 different unions in 40 departments and agencies. There are 3,400 separate bargaining units in Federal activities and installations all over the United States; half of these have negotiated written agreements, most of them with the local installation manager.

The written agreements vary considerably according to the interests of the employees and the authority delegated to management. Negotiated subjects include: grievance procedures, union participation on health and safety committees, rest and lunch periods, washup time, scheduling of leave and overtime, uniform allowances, official time for shop stewards, environmental and hazard pay, parking, and such working conditions as lighting and air conditioning.

Unions and Management in a Bind

Although the list of bargainable subjects is long and contains some elements of the private sector "bread

and butter" items, the local manager has only limited authority in such areas as pay, classification, basic work week, leave, and fringe benefits. The fundamental aspects of these are granted and periodically improved through the legislative process. They are non-negotiable.

Furthermore, management authority is limited by Civil Service Commission regulations (via the FPM) and by agency regulations in such areas as reduction in force, incentive awards, promotions, and performance evaluation.

In this connection, it is worth looking at two portions of Executive Order 11491, which establishes the legal framework for the Federal labor-management relations program. To quote:

☐ " . . . officials and employees are governed by existing or future laws and the regulations of appropriate authorities, including policies set forth in the Federal Personnel Manual; by published agency policies and regulations. . . . "

☐ " . . . the well-being of employees and efficient administration of the Government are benefited by providing employees an opportunity to participate in the formulation and implementation of personnel policies and practices affecting the conditions of their employment. . . . "

I do not mean to suggest in this discussion of the limitations on collective bargaining that Federal unions and management should be able to negotiate everything that their industry counterparts can. There are very compelling reasons—related to Government's responsibility to assure essential services to the people—for such basic limitations. Rather, as in any area of life affected by accelerating change, there needs to be periodic re-examination of the Federal scope of bargaining in order to cast off counter-productive procedures and provide the flexibilities needed to meet today's realities.

Need for Orderly Change

With this background in mind, we can better understand why the Civil Service Commission undertook a review of the Federal Personnel Manual to identify policies and regulations that may be undesirably restricting management options and union opportunities to bargain.

During the year-long review, we wrote to, and spent many hours meeting with, union leaders, labor negotiators, persons expert in settling labor-management disputes, public administrators, and Federal, State, and local personnel officials. All parties were unanimous on one point: The present situation is unacceptable; more personnel management areas must be opened to collective bargaining.

Some told us that in many instances the FPM permits only one approach or solution, and that management and unions could jointly work out acceptable alternatives if they were permitted to do so. They said there is tremendous diversity within the Federal Government—different agency missions, occupations, size of organizations, geographic locations, etc.—and uniform treatment is often unnecessary and sometimes undesirable.

The majority on both the management and union sides stressed their readiness to assume additional per-

sonnel management responsibilities and to negotiate in those areas. A minority suggested that to make any changes in the FPM which would open up areas for bargaining would be like giving away the store—there would be no mutual benefit, only one side would profit.

On this point, I would emphasize that allowing collective bargaining is not giving away the store. To *allow* bargaining on subjects previously controlled by the FPM would be to open more opportunities for joint labor-management problem solving. Responsibility and control would pass to management, with encouragement to further delegate or bargain to the maximum extent feasible. In other words, instead of enforced Government-wide uniformity, we can expect to see a variety of arrangements more attuned to the needs of agencies and their employees.

Furthermore, "giving away the store" suggests that changes in the FPM would be adverse to the need for Government efficiency and effectiveness. Certainly the potential exists for counter-productive decisions in any area where collective bargaining takes place, but based upon recent dealings with agencies and unions we expect future FPM changes to lead to more—not less—efficiency and effectiveness.

It is particularly important to remember that bargaining is a bilateral process. Expanded bargaining means that labor unions will acquire more opportunities to represent employee interests. It also means that Federal managers will gain additional authority and responsibility in representing management interests.

Managers may no longer be able to use FPM requirements to say "I can't," but they will have the authority and responsibility to say "I won't, because" when the efficiency and effectiveness of their operations are at stake. We have confidence that they will be prepared to make these decisions and to say "I won't" when necessary.

Finally on this point, to the extent that Government-wide uniformity is required, or where change would be detrimental to merit principles or other public interest factors, the FPM will not be changed. That does not mean, however, that the FPM is or will be a major stumbling block to collective bargaining. In the course of our year-long study, 18 staff members spent the better part of 6 weeks poring over the labyrinthian 80-chapter Federal Personnel Manual and the laws on which its regulations and policies are based. They found:

☐ There is more room in the FPM for collective bargaining than management and unions have assumed.

☐ Both sides have been interpreting provisions in many FPM chapters more restrictively than is necessary.

☐ Although many other factors may enter a negotiability determination—such as requirements of law or Executive order, Comptroller General or Federal Labor Relations Council decisions, and agency regulations—to the extent that something is not *prescribed* or *proscribed* in the Federal Personnel Manual, the FPM does not serve as a barrier to negotiations.

☐ Some FPM regulations and policies do, in fact, limit management action and opportunities to bargain, and in some of these instances their modification would be beneficial to both management and unions.

There are two basic reasons why the parties have concluded that FPM language makes some issues appear to be non-negotiable.

To encourage sound personnel management practices, much of the advice and guidance in the FPM has been stated in very positive terms. When blended with requirements of law or regulation, such words as "should," "may," and "when appropriate" tend to take on a mandatory character. Without a careful differentiation between regulatory and advisory language, some readers find themselves concluding that if something is spoken to at all in the FPM, it is non-negotiable.

Since bargaining is frequently a part-time activity at a level far removed from the regulatory authorities (principally agency headquarters and the Civil Service Commission), many local negotiators are not familiar with the details of laws, regulations, and policies. Consequently, an assumption that a long-held practice is mandatory may, in itself, lead to a refusal to bargain on that practice.

If, then, there is a need to clear up some of this confusion, and if changing some FPM provisions would benefit both management and labor and is in keeping with the intent of Executive Order 11491, what will be done about it?

Giveaway?

Because at this writing final decisions have not been made regarding specific changes in the FPM, I will respond generally to the question of what will be done.

Earlier, I made the comment that future changes in the Federal personnel system will be evolutionary, consistent with basic merit principles, and beneficial to the public interest. Certainly we must concede that our personnel system is not perfect and is in constant need of improvement. But some kind of system and organization is necessary, otherwise the public interest is in jeopardy. Thus, total abandonment of the system is out of the question.

What, then, will we not give way on; what are the fundamentals that deserve retention and a strong defense?

First and foremost, as far as the Civil Service Commission is concerned, our personnel system must operate within the framework of merit principles. The underlying principle—originating in the Civil Service Act of 1883—is that recruitment, selection, and advancement of employees must be accomplished under conditions of political neutrality, equal opportunity, and competition on the basis of merit.

Similarly, there are sound public interest fundamentals that must continue without obstruction. They are beautifully summed up in the preamble to the U. S. Constitution: ". . . establish Justice, insure domestic Tranquility, provide for the common Defence, promote the general Welfare. . . ." That is why Government exists and will continue. And certainly it promotes the general welfare of the public for Government departments and agencies to have effective, efficient operations and administration of assigned programs.

As Government programs and priorities evolve, it is important that our personnel system also evolve to be supportive of those changes. That brings us back to the contemplated changes in the Federal Personnel Manual which are geared to promote efficient Government operations and effective labor-management dealings.

In our latest communication with Federal agencies, unions, and other interested parties, there was near-unanimous agreement that the most significant product of our FPM review would be a change in FPM format to help clarify whether something is or is not negotiable. We are, therefore, proceeding to rewrite several key FPM chapters to separate guidance material from legal and regulatory material. At the same time, we hope to remove ambiguous terms and make regulatory material as specific as possible. If these model chapters fulfill our expectations, we will proceed with changes to additional portions of the FPM.

Also in that latest communication, responses were generally favorable to suggested changes in several FPM regulations and policies. The general thrust was that, wherever feasible, negotiability barriers in the Manual—those not required by law, Presidential order, merit principles, or other public interest factors—be removed or changed to guidance. We will be working on a continuing basis to do this. And, as our staff members in the various program areas go about their business of modernizing the Federal personnel system, we will be sensitive to the labor-management implications of suggested changes.

Last but not least, we will make it clear in the FPM, and by other means, that the Civil Service Commission encourages (1) the delegation of personnel authority to the lowest practicable management level, and (2) if delegation does not reach the bargaining level, provision for an effective means of union participation at the level where personnel policy decisions are made. We will also make it clear that the absence of a negotiability barrier is a *prima facie* indication that the Commission sees no compelling need for Government-wide uniformity and that the subject is an appropriate one for collective bargaining—unless restrictions in E.O. 11491 or compelling reasons for uniformity within an agency dictate otherwise.

From my perspective as manager of the Federal Personnel Manual, I think that these are significant changes that will—in the aggregate, and in the long run—broaden the scope of bargaining and lead to greater efficiency and effectiveness in the Federal service.

While management is responsible for effective, efficient operations and administration of assigned programs, both management and labor are concerned with equitable treatment of employees. Both must assure that employees are provided "an opportunity to participate in the formulation and implementation of personnel policies and practices affecting the conditions of their employment."

There is mutual benefit in doing this. It is what collective bargaining is all about.

If accomplished within the framework of merit principles and without detriment to the public interest, this is *not* giving away the store. #

A show of hands

ARS COURSE AFFORDS DYNAMIC INTERCHANGE

by Albert J. St. Denis

ONE RESULT of the Intergovernmental Personnel Act of 1970 is a new interchange of ideas and techniques among supervisors from State, local, and Federal agencies in federally sponsored training courses. At least, that has been the experience we have had with our supervisor training course.

The U.S. Department of Agriculture's Agricultural Research Service (ARS) has been presenting a 40-hour, multimedia, basic supervisory course to ARS people since 1969. In 1971—as one step toward implementing the Intergovernmental Personnel Act—we made it available to people from State and local governments as well.

One of the objectives of the course is to provide an environment where participants can compare and contrast their own supervisory situations with those of others. The problems built into the course are typical of those encountered on the job: motivating people, dealing with interpersonal conflicts and organizational obstacles.

Most participants have found that while the setting may be different, the problems—and the approaches to problem solving—are essentially applicable to State and local as well as Federal situations.

The basic design of the course is such that it can be adjusted to the learning needs of the individuals. We know that all people don't learn the same way. Some learn better by reading, some by listening, some by independent discovery. Having different people from different organizations gives us the chance to adapt the methods which best suit that class or individual.

ARS supervisors are sometimes surprised that others have the same kinds of people problems that they have. That's sort of an eye opener. And it seems to help build confidence in the participants' ability to solve their supervisory problems.

Since ARS started offering the course, more than 2,400 have completed it. Last year, of the nearly 500 persons completing, 100 were State and local government employees.

In most cases, the feedback was so good that we got calls from State and local officials asking if more people could be scheduled. Some even asked us to conduct a special course just for them. ☞

MR. ST. DENIS is Assistant Chief of the Training and Career Development Branch, Agricultural Research Service.

One special request was from the USDA-liaison officer for Delaware State College in Dover. There, ARS personnel conducted a special 3-day version of the course for 16 administrative officers. The enthusiasm generated by the program has caused the curriculum planning people to consider including this kind of training as a part of the college curriculum.

When non-Federal organizations want to send more people than ARS has room for, ARS provides them with a set of materials and helps them get to that point where their training person can serve as course director in their own State or city organization. Since the methodology requires only one person to conduct the course, it is relatively easy for an agency to develop its own course using an ARS Instructor's Manual, tapes, and handouts.

How do the State and local government people who take the course feel about it? Here are some typical comments:

"I learned that problems I have encountered are not just peculiar to my own department. We have a great deal to learn from each other."

"The section on 'Dealing Effectively With People' helped me to think more clearly about my job—how well I'm doing and how I can improve as a supervisor."

"As a training officer, I feel more excited about my assignment. I want to implement a course similar to this for our own City employees."

What does this mean for the future of ARS training courses? Glavis B. Edwards, personnel director for ARS, summarizes:

"We not only can follow the provisions of the IPA but we can do it with a minimum of effort using our present on-going training courses. The effect of this help, particularly when it is given to training personnel in municipal and State organizations, promotes the 'New Federalism' in general and specifically improves town and State management in the places where we live which, from a strictly personal point of view, is very worthwhile.

"We plan to continue with this program this year and extend it to our second-phase supervisory training course next year. Hopefully, we'll be able to reach an additional 200 to 500 State and local supervisory personnel."

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OF JOB FACTORS AND BENCHMARKS

CSC Chairman Robert E. Hampton has approved a project looking toward the improvement of the methods for classifying nearly 1.3 million white-collar Federal positions at grades GS–1 through 15 of the General Schedule. The Commission is now developing and testing a factor ranking technique, with benchmark descriptions, for carrying out the project.

The Job Evaluation and Pay Review Task Force recommended this factor ranking/benchmark technique of job evaluation and designed several job evaluation systems using the technique. The new CSC project will test it for application to the General Schedule job evaluation structure. Harold Suskin, a member of the Task Force, heads the project staff—part of the Standards Division in the Commission's Bureau of Policies and Standards.

Factor ranking is essentially a technique of comparing a job to be evaluated with other jobs under the same system. The technique requires the rater to make a critical analysis of a job on a factor basis and compare the job with approved benchmark position descriptions to determine the grade level. The benchmark position descriptions in factor format, if adopted, would provide basic grade-level criteria in the occupational standards issued by the Civil Service Commission.

The work of developing and testing this new technique will be accomplished in three phases.

Phase I involves designing and developing a factor ranking/benchmark job evaluation framework for grades GS–1 through 15. This phase will result in guide charts for use in evaluating benchmark position descriptions, as well as a representative sample of the descriptions.

In Phase II, the basic framework will be tested for consistency of application and administrative acceptability.

Results of the test will be evaluated during Phase III.

Federal agencies, unions, and professional organizations will be consulted frequently during the development and testing of the factor ranking/benchmark technique.

The Commission anticipates that the factor ranking/benchmark technique of job evaluation will result in a better understanding of the job evaluation process by managers, supervisors, employees, and employee representatives. It is hoped that this approach will assure greater accuracy and consistency of job evaluation and make the classification process more economical to administer.

Current classification standards continue in full force and effect. If the test results for the new method are favorable, the Civil Service Commission and Federal agencies will establish additional projects to implement the factor ranking/benchmark method in occupational standards.

—Robert A. Dodd

MILLION DOLLAR CLUB

Benefits From Suggestions

AIR FORCE	$79,277,575
ARMY	71,001,200
NAVY	29,205,883
POSTAL SERVICE	8,797,916
DSA	5,064,430
NASA	3,574,629

$202.1 Million Saved Through Suggestions

During Fiscal Year 1972, a record-shattering $202.1 million in Federal funds was saved as a result of adopted employee suggestions alone. For the 6th consecutive year measurable benefits from suggestions exceeded the $150 million mark, topping $200 million for the first time and surpassing the FY 1969 record by $6 million.

Key Trends

The FY 1972 results show—

☐ Over 225,000 (about 1 in 12) Federal employees were recognized for ideas which improved Government operations or for services and performance exceeding job responsibility.

☐ The quality of employee ideas continued to show improvement as evidenced by the increase over last year in average benefits per cash award (up 29.3 percent from $2,778 to $3,593), the increased cash award (from $82 to $83), and the increase in the percentage adopted (from 26.5 percent to 26.9 percent).

☐ Special achievement awards were granted to 104,605 Federal employees who showed superior job performance.

☐ Of the 1,300 suggestions referred for interdepartmental consideration, 109 were adopted—yielding an average benefit of $8,504.

☐ Approximately 3.3 percent of General Schedule employees received quality increases—down .6 percent from FY 1971.

Significant Agency Accomplishments

☐ Department of Defense suggestion and superior performance programs together yielded the highest combined total benefits ever achieved—$281.1 million, topping last year's previous high of $280.5 million.

☐ Air Force led all agencies in dollar benefits from suggestions with over $79.2 million—up 31.4 percent over last year and exceeding $50 million for the sixth time in 7 years.

☐ Army, first among Defense agencies in total number of adopted suggestions, adopted 19,877 of the 70,685 received, and had over $71 million in tangible benefits (over $60 million for the fifth consecutive year).

☐ Navy eclipsed all other agencies in measurable benefits derived from special achievements with $61.2 million.

☐ Defense Supply Agency had the highest rate of employee participation in the program, with a receipt rate of 22.7 suggestions per 100 employees and an adoption rate of 6.9 suggestions per 100 employees (resulting in tangible benefits of over $5 million).

☐ Justice more than tripled tangible benefits from suggestions—with almost one quarter of a million

dollars, reaching the second highest level in the history of the Department's program.

Top Cash Award

Jerome Babb, a supervisory electronics engineer with the Naval Ship Systems Command, received $7,725 for designing and developing new and extremely successful sonar circuitry. Rather than implementing approved plans already contracted for $7,300,000, Mr. Babb investigated a more efficient and far less costly alternative which saved the Navy $6,622,812 in first-year tangible benefits alone.

Other Significant Awards

☐ Department of Agriculture awarded $3,929 to a research service equipment specialist for his work on eradicating screwworm flies in the United States. Working in an area in which guidelines are few and precedents almost nonexistent, his extremely creative approach served as a model for other insect control and research efforts. The first-year saving amounted to $894,669, plus intangible benefits resulting from techniques which helped prevent major outbreaks of livestock infestation.

☐ An award of $2,935 was granted to an aircraft welder at Tinker Air Force Base for suggesting that second and third stage jet engine turbine blades be built up and machined to required specifications within Air Force facilities, rather than under contract, with an estimated saving of $1,784,675.

☐ Spaceflight safety and overall mission potential of the NASA Skylab Program will be greatly increased thanks to the efforts of an aerospace technician. Receiving $2,215 for his suggestion that oxygen storage bottles be made of winding filament with stainless steel liners, this employee saved the Government $1,113,000.

☐ A contract price analyst with the Defense Supply Agency in San Francisco received his agency's largest suggestion award, $1,535, for proposing modifications to the Poseidon Missile Launch tube shipping container which resulted in a saving to the Navy of $433,000.

☐ The second highest award in the history of the Labor Department's suggestion program, $1,295, went to a manpower development advisor who developed a simplified system for administering the basic occupational literacy test. Adopted by the State Employment Services, the system saves $200,000 annually.

☐ Seven employees of the Civil Service Commission earned $1,250 for developing a system to speed delivery of annuity checks to Federal retirees, and for designing with IRS a mailing system for combining Federal income tax forms and checks, a procedure which saves the Government $80,000 annually in postage alone.

—Dick Brengel

SUMMARY OF GOVERNMENT-WIDE RESULTS

EXTRA EMPLOYEE CONTRIBUTIONS	FY 1972	FY 1971
Suggestions Adopted	81,408	96,879
Rate per 100 employees	3.0	3.6
Superior Achievements Recognized	104,605	105,937
Rate per 100 employees	3.8	4.0
MEASURABLE BENEFITS		
Adopted Suggestions	$202,116,871	$170,844,320
Superior Achievements	$113,219,748	$173,949,083
AWARDS TO EMPLOYEES		
Adopted Suggestions	$4,644,559	$5,060,038
Average award	$83	$82
Average benefits per cash award	$3,593	$2,778
Superior Achievements	$16,176,479	$17,835,240
Average award	$177	$185
Average benefits per cash award	$1,238	$1,410

by Leonora Guarraia

WITH THE SIGNING into law of a single piece of legislation, the U.S. Civil Service Commission was placed in the thick of far-ranging efforts to revitalize the Federal system and increase governmental responsiveness.

The Intergovernmental Personnel Act of 1970 (IPA), signed January 5, 1971, grew out of a recognition that personnel effectiveness is a major key to governmental responsiveness. The Act recognizes further that strengthening the people factor at the point of delivery for most government services—in the States, counties, and cities—will produce great dividends in terms of improving overall governmental performance.

Along with revenue sharing, welfare reform, and the Federal Assistance Review, the IPA is an essential element in efforts to help State and local governments fulfill their historic role as full partners in the Federal system. At the same time as State and local jurisdictions assume increasing program responsibilities, the need for sound personnel systems and competent employees becomes even more critical. The IPA can be of significant help in meeting this need. It has been described

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by U.S. Civil Service Commission Chairman Robert E. Hampton as "the first comprehensive statute designed to strengthen personnel resources of State and local governments."

The thrust of the IPA is to heighten the effectiveness of personnel and personnel management through provisions for grants, talent sharing, training, and technical assistance. Its focus is on people serving at the cutting edge of government planning and action—administrative, professional, and technical people.

To get a better idea of what the Act does, here's an overview of some of its provisions. The IPA:

☐ Emphasizes intergovernmental cooperation and creation of a true partnership among all levels of government;

☐ Authorizes Federal financial and technical assistance to State and local governments for improving their personnel systems;

☐ Makes possible grants for training State and local personnel and for establishing government service fellowships, and allows for the admission of State and local personnel to Federal training programs;

☐ Provides for the temporary assignment of personnel between Federal agencies and State and local governments and institutions of higher learning;

☐ Encourages innovation and diversity by State and local governments in the design and management of their own personnel systems;

☐ Gives the U.S. Civil Service Commission a leadership role in coordination of personnel management and training assistance available to State and local governments;

☐ Transfers to the Commission major responsibility for setting and administering merit system standards for Federal grant programs; and

☐ Establishes an Advisory Council on Intergovernmental Personnel Policy.

The first order of business facing the U.S. Civil Service Commission after the Act was signed was to establish an organization for administering its provisions. To do this a Bureau of Intergovernmental Personnel Programs was set up in the Commission's central office, and an Intergovernmental Personnel Programs Division was established in each of the Commission's ten regional offices. The new program was staffed by personnel transferred from HEW's Office of State Merit Systems and by recruitment from within the Commission and outside, with a representative "mix" from State and local governments. The Bureau has built up to about 50 people in the central office, with an additional 100 working in the regional IPP Divisions.

In organizing the program the decision was made to decentralize administration of the IPA. Therefore, a key role is played in its administration by the Commission's regional directors and the regional IPP Divisions. Priorities for personnel management improvement and staff training are determined by States and localities according to their particular needs.

With the first full year of operation under the IPA completed, and with all provisions of the Act being utilized, solid results are beginning to show in all areas.

Grants

The IPA grant program began as a relatively modest one—$12.5 million in Fiscal Year 1972. It was designed, however, to achieve maximum impact from these resources, and it did just that.

The grant provisions of the IPA encourage a pooling of efforts to identify and meet common needs. A State is encouraged to take the initiative in cooperatively developing, with local units of government, a State-wide plan for personnel management improvement and training.

Using this approach, 38 States established State-wide programs for improving their personnel administration and personnel capabilities—such programs as:

☐ Establishing a State-wide personnel bureau—as in the Montana plan;

☐ Creating an intergovernmental personnel service center for employee training, job information, joint testing, and personnel research—as in the Utah plan;

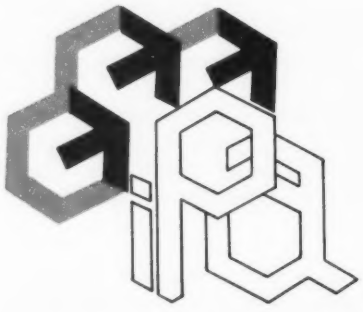
☐ Developing model county and municipal personnel systems—as in the New Jersey plan; and

☐ Establishing a Public Executive Institute—as in the Virginia plan.

The IPA also provides for direct grants to local governments when there is no State-wide plan or when a local government has special needs not covered by a State-wide plan.

In FY 1972 we received grant requests from State and local jurisdictions to deal with special needs affecting one or more units of government. For example, a grant was made to the State of Massachusetts for labor relations training. A number of grants were made to various jurisdictions for test validation studies.

Some grants were made to regional or interstate groups or to public interest organizations involved in training State and local employees. For example, grants went to:



☐ The Valley Council of Governments in Connecticut for the development of a unified personnel system for member governments;

☐ The Great Lakes Assessment Council, representing five midwestern States and three cities, for the development of a coordinated program of testing and test validation; and

☐ The International City Management Association on behalf of six public interest groups, for a National Training and Development Service to expand State and local government training on a nationwide scale.

While a majority of these grants were made for the executive agencies of State and local governments, a few were made to legislative and judicial branches as well. For example, fellowships in court management were awarded to employees of court systems in Los Angeles and the District of Columbia. And in the State of Alaska, legislative auditors are being trained in modern auditing techniques.

In FY 1972, 214 IPA grants were awarded. More than half of the grant funds were for projects to improve State and local personnel administration. About 37 percent of the funds were in support of training projects and 3 percent went for government service fellowships, with the remaining 60 percent devoted to personnel management improvements.

In keeping with the emphasis on increased reliance on State and local governments and on simplifying procedures, the following administrative features have been built into the IPA grant program:

State and local priority setting—State and local governments determine their own needs and set their own priorities for personnel system improvements and staff training.

Decentralization—Decision-making authority is placed close to the applicants. The Commission's regional directors have complete authority for all grants awarded in their regions.

Simplified application and reporting forms—Simplified applications and reporting forms have been developed, using the insights gained from other agency experience.

Pre-application consultation—This is strongly encouraged, and substantial Commission resources are devoted to it. These consultations produce many benefits, including promoting closer cooperation among the jurisdictions, avoiding duplication of effort, and remedying application deficiencies.

Rapid application processing—Grant processing machinery is as simple as possible. With pre-application consultation, decentralized decision-making, and the "grants manager" concept, final action on grant applications is normally completed in less than 30 days.

Post-award monitoring—The post-award monitoring program gives the grant manager an opportunity to assist the grantee in obtaining maximum program results. Grantees are also encouraged to engage in self-evaluation efforts and are required to submit a final project report to the Commission.

Mobility

The ability to share top talent from other levels of government provides a direct way to improve government operations and increase intergovernmental cooperation. It enables a governmental unit to obtain the expert help it needs to solve a problem or get a new program started. It can contribute to more effective mission accomplishment in joint Federal-State-local programs.

Title IV of the IPA—sometimes called the mobility or interchange feature—eased the way for this movement.

President Nixon took special notice of the great potential of IPA personnel mobility, and on August 25, 1971, wrote each Governor and the head of each Federal agency urging "use of this new tool for building stronger partnership" with great benefits for all levels of government.

Although still modest in number when compared with the potential—as of the end of August 1972, over 300 assignments—the program *is* achieving significant results. Key personnel have been assigned to positions where they have a significant impact on improving government operations.

A number of those assigned have served, or are serving, as top advisors to chief executives involved in reorganizing or streamlining government programs. For example:

☐ An OMB Budget Analyst participated in developing formulas for a proposed tax-sharing system in New Hampshire.

☐ A Department of Agriculture employee is serving as Budget Director in South Dakota, setting up a new program budget.

☐ A Deputy Regional Commissioner, HEW, is with the State of Massachusetts as Assistant Secretary for Human Services, working on the establishment of an integrated social services delivery system.

Other personnel are serving in vital programs:

☐ Fifteen State Employment Security Counselors are on loan to the Department of Labor providing job counseling to servicemen overseas who are about to return to civilian life.

☐ A police lieutenant from the Los Angeles County Sheriff's Department is helping Justice's Law Enforcement Assistance Administration in its program to attract more minority group members to police work.

☐ A University of Washington professor is working with the National Science Foundation as a Polar Research Program Manager.

☐ A NASA employee is working in Texas with the Galveston County Health District in planning and eval-

uating the county's coordinated community clinic operation.

As the contributions made by those assigned become more widely known, we can anticipate a greater sharing of expertise for better delivery of services to the public. The distribution of employees participating in the mobility program has been representative of all levels of government. Sixty percent have been Federal employees assigned to State or local governments or universities, while 40 percent have been State or local government employees or from universities assigned to the Federal Government.

Individual Federal agencies have full authority to negotiate personnel mobility agreements directly with State and local governments or with universities. The role of the Civil Service Commission is to encourage and monitor the interchange of talent between interested jurisdictions. Federal Regional Councils and Federal Executive Boards have been asked to encourage mobility assignments by bringing together interested managers from all levels of government and discussing situations in which mobility assignments might help.

Training

The IPA authorizes the admission of State and local employees to Federal training courses. This simple provision has enormous potential for upgrading the quality of State and local personnel. During the past year there has been a substantial increase in the number of State and local employees attending Civil Service Commission training courses—approximately 11,000 in FY 1972, as compared with 7,300 in FY 1971.

While much of this training has come through courses developed for Federal personnel, a number of courses were tailored specifically to meet the needs of States and localities, namely:

☐ Our St. Louis Regional Training Center arranged a Middle Management Institute for Kansas personnel officers and managers.

☐ The Dallas Regional Center conducted a course in automatic data processing systems for the City of Wichita Falls, Tex.

☐ The Philadelphia Region provided an executive seminar for city officials of New Castle, Del.

☐ The San Francisco Region developed a course on job restructuring for the San Francisco Manpower Administration in connection with implementing the Emergency Employment Act.

Additional courses being developed by the Commission will further benefit State and local personnel. These include management science institutes and a wide range of offerings on equal employment opportunity efforts. A new course, "Decentralization and the Executive Branch," was conducted in Washington, D.C., and pilot-tested in Seattle. Pilot sessions were also held for two other courses directed to the needs of State and local governments—"Financial Administration and Federal Grants" and "Local Government Financial Management and Accountability."

Technical Assistance

The IPA authorizes the Commission to furnish technical assistance to State and local governments to improve their systems of personnel administration. The Commission, prior to the IPA, had supplied a very limited amount of technical assistance. This has been considerably expanded.

☐ *Reimbursable technical assistance*

A major thrust of the technical assistance program has been advice and assistance to State and local governments in implementing the personnel aspects of the Emergency Employment Act (EEA). Under a contract with Labor's Manpower Administration, the Commission now has an EEA advisor in each of its regional offices. These advisors helped speed the initial hiring of 120,000 unemployed for special jobs established by State and local governments with EEA funds. We are now in the second stage—advising State and local governments on ways and means of assisting the transition of these newly hired employees into the regular work force.

There is also brisk business in reimbursable technical assistance projects on other fronts, such as:

—Revision of personnel procedures and review of the examination process and classification system for the Commonwealth of Massachusetts.

—Evaluation of decentralized personnel operations for the State of New Jersey.

—Comprehensive evaluation of personnel operations for the Pennsylvania Liquor Control Board.

—Survey of training needs for Mobile, Baldwin, and Escambia Counties, Ala.

—Review of classification and compensation for the City of Hurst, Tex.

—Assessment of training needs and auditing of personnel practices for the Territory of Guam.

☐ *Nonreimbursable technical assistance*

This has consisted primarily of assistance in meeting merit system standards, largely in the equal employment opportunity area, and developing and furnishing written test material to State and local governments. More than 35 States and several local governments received written test materials in FY 1972.

Cooperative Recruiting and Examining

This is an area of high potential for all levels of government. It can help reduce government costs by eliminating duplication of effort, and it affords greater convenience to the public.

The IPA authorizes CSC participation in shared-cost intergovernmental recruiting and examining and State

and local use of Federal eligibility lists and talent banks on a reimbursable basis.

The following are examples of shared-cost projects started in the area of recruiting and examining:

☐ Applicants for stenographer and typist positions in the Philadelphia area can obtain eligibility for employment at the Federal, State, and city levels by passing the test given by any of the three jurisdictions. An arrangement has been developed in Memphis, Tenn.—with the City of Memphis, Shelby County, and the CSC Memphis Area Office—in which all three jurisdictions hire from the same list of eligibles.

☐ Intergovernmental Job Information Centers have been established in Harrisburg, Pa., Denver, Colo., Richmond, Va., and Memphis, Tenn. Others are scheduled to open soon in Mobile, Ala., and Pensacola, Fla. They are supported by Federal, State, and local governments and provide one-stop job information service to applicants for all jurisdictions.

The Commission is interested in exploring all possible avenues for cooperative recruitment and examining with States and local governments. In this regard, CSC Area Offices around the country are discussing with various State and local jurisdictions the feasibility of setting up pilot projects to test cooperative models such as:

☐ Cooperative examination for college-entry-level positions with the Twin Cities Area Office and the State of Minnesota.

☐ Cooperative use of the Worker-Trainee examination to fill Emergency Employment Act jobs in various jurisdictions in the Philadelphia Region.

☐ Cooperative shared-costs examination for clerical positions with the San Bernardino Area Office and surrounding local government jurisdictions participating.

Advisory Council

The IPA provided for the establishment of an Advisory Council on Intergovernmental Personnel Policy. In July 1971, the President appointed 15 outstanding citizens as members. The members include persons selected from universities, public employee organizations, and the general public, in addition to local, State, and Federal Government officials. The Chairman of the Council is Mrs. Ersa H. Poston, President, New York State Civil Service Commission, and the Vice Chairman is Mrs. Barbara Bates Gunderson, a former U.S. Civil Service Commissioner. The Council's first report is due in January 1973. It will cover, among other things, the Council's views and recommendations on appropriate Federal merit personnel standards upon which grants-in-aid should be conditioned. The report will also discuss the feasibility and desirability of extending merit policies and standards to additional grant-in-aid programs.

Putting It All Together

A good start has been made. A high degree of momentum has been generated in all program areas. For FY 1973 we will be concentrating on evaluating early experience and expanding our efforts.

For FY 1973 we received $15 million in funds for the grant program, an increase of 20 percent over FY 1972, which will be applied toward meeting identified needs for personnel management improvement and staff training singled out by State and local government chief executives.

Increased funding has been made available from the Labor Department for assistance under the Emergency Employment Act.

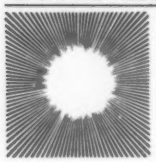
Funding has been made available for an information clearinghouse to provide the results of IPA grants and technical assistance projects to State and local governments.

Expansion of activities in all other areas of the IPA are underway during the second year of operation. Perhaps the greatest challenge will be to respond effectively to the expectations generated in State and local governments by our first year of operations. It is crucial that we fulfill these expectations.

State and local governments will have greatly increased responsibilities due to the passage of revenue sharing and the increased emphasis being placed upon States and localities as full partners in a more viable system of public service.

The IPA programs, put together in a true spirit of intergovernmental cooperation and partnership, can make a major contribution to the meeting of these responsibilities. #

EMPLOYMENT FOCUS



Based on a 10 percent sample of the Federal civilian work force, the Civil Service Commission has estimated the age and length of service of the 2.8 million men and women employed as of June 30, 1971. These data are shown in the table below.

At the end of Fiscal Year 1971, the Federal Government had on its rolls 1,927,465 men and 833,637 women, for a total of 2,761,102 workers. Women comprised 30.2 percent of the work force.

The average age of men was 42.9 years—about 3.5 years more than the average age for women (39.3 years). The average age for all Federal civilian employees

Federal civilian employment by age, sex, and length of service, June 1972 (estimated from

Age	Years of service—total men and women									
	Total		Under 5		5–9		10–14		15–19	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Total	2,761,102	100.0	641,313	100.0	598,552	100.0	404,540	100.0	343,898	100.0
Under 20	53,328	1.9	53,328	8.3	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
20–24	264,498	9.6	227,308	35.4	37,190	6.2	.....	.....	.....	.....
25–29	297,840	10.8	141,247	22.0	145,739	24.3	10,854	2.7	.....	.....
30–34	254,632	9.2	62,412	9.7	114,429	19.1	68,430	16.9	9,361	2.7
35–39	274,710	9.9	43,266	6.7	70,923	11.8	83,028	20.5	70,027	20.4
40–44	326,958	11.8	37,949	5.9	71,830	12.0	66,478	16.4	78,193	22.7
45–49	427,663	15.5	31,711	4.9	65,743	11.0	71,612	17.7	69,119	20.1
50–54	411,574	14.9	21,341	3.3	48,112	8.0	53,786	13.3	57,864	16.8
55–59	266,208	9.6	13,598	2.1	27,094	4.5	30,678	7.6	34,721	10.1
60–64	133,045	4.8	6,420	1.0	13,105	2.2	14,104	3.5	17,722	5.2
65 and over	50,646	1.8	2,733	.4	4,387	.7	5,570	1.4	6,891	2.0
	Years of service—men									
Total	1,927,465	100.0	319,994	100.0	393,010	100.0	306,478	100.0	264,177	100.0
Under 20	28,127	1.5	28,127	8.8	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
20–24	135,080	7.0	116,509	36.4	18,571	4.7	.....	.....	.....	.....
25–29	186,364	9.7	80,697	25.2	98,615	25.1	7,052	2.3	.....	.....
30–34	177,739	9.2	31,585	9.9	84,109	21.4	54,293	17.7	7,752	2.9
35–39	199,868	10.4	17,825	5.6	47,159	12.0	68,142	22.2	60,528	22.9
40–44	244,029	12.7	15,252	4.8	48,721	12.4	52,132	17.0	64,892	24.6
45–49	313,612	16.3	10,888	3.4	38,638	9.8	52,454	17.1	50,629	19.2
50–54	313,222	16.3	7,396	2.3	28,702	7.3	38,604	12.6	41,888	15.9
55–59	197,882	10.3	6,087	1.9	16,665	4.2	20,617	6.7	23,166	8.8
60–64	96,467	5.0	3,687	1.2	8,787	2.2	9,522	3.1	11,060	4.2
65 and over	35,075	1.8	1,941	.6	3,043	.8	3,662	1.2	4,262	1.6
	Years of service—women									
Total	833,637	100.0	321,319	100.0	205,542	100.0	98,062	100.0	79,721	100.0
Under 20	25,201	3.0	25,201	7.8	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
20–24	129,418	15.5	110,799	34.5	18,619	9.1	.....	.....	.....	.....
25–29	111,476	13.4	60,550	18.8	47,124	22.9	3,802	3.9	.....	.....
30–34	76,893	9.2	30,827	9.6	30,320	14.8	14,137	14.4	1,609	2.0
35–39	74,842	9.0	25,441	7.9	23,764	11.6	14,886	15.2	9,499	11.9
40–44	82,929	9.9	22,697	7.1	23,109	11.2	14,346	14.6	13,301	16.7
45–49	114,051	13.7	20,823	6.5	27,105	13.2	19,158	19.5	18,490	23.2
50–54	98,352	11.8	13,945	4.3	19,410	9.4	15,182	15.5	15,976	20.0
55–59	68,326	8.2	7,511	2.3	10,429	5.1	10,061	10.3	11,555	14.5
60–64	36,578	4.4	2,733	.9	4,318	2.1	4,582	4.7	6,662	8.4
65 and over	15,571	1.9	792	.2	1,344	.7	1,908	1.9	2,629	3.3

Note: Percentages may not add to totals, due to rounding.

was 41.8. The "under 25" age bracket included 18.5 percent of the women, but only 8.5 percent of the men. In contrast, the "50 and above" age group included approximately one third of the men, but only one quarter of the women.

In the length of service category, the men's average was 14.9 years, while women averaged 9.6 years of service. The average length of service for the entire Federal civilian work force was 13.3 years. Military service is included in the length of service records. Veteran preference is claimed by 49 percent of Federal civilian employees; this represents 66 percent of the men employees and 6 percent of the women.

Nearly one fourth of the Federal civilian work force has been on board for less than 5 years, more than half of them women. Employees with 5 to 20 years' length of service constitute about half of the work force; of these 1,346,990 employees, 28.5 percent (383,325) are women. The remaining 25 percent of the work force has 20 or more years of service; this category includes 128,993 women, or 16.7 percent of the total. Thus, it can be seen that the proportion of women decreases as the years of service increase.

—Chris Steele

the Federal Personnel Statistics program 10 percent sample and excludes foreign nationals)

Years of service—total men and women										
20–24		25–29		30–34		35–39		40 and over		Age
Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	
300,206	100.0	321,813	100.0	139,628	100.0	2,894	100.0	8,258	100.0	Total
.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Under 20
.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	20–24
.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	25–29
.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	30–34
7,466	2.5	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	35–39
62,641	20.9	9,867	3.1	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	40–44
92,436	30.8	89,255	27.7	7,787	5.6	.....	.....	.....	.....	45–49
69,282	23.1	110,768	34.4	50,387	36.1	34	1.2	.....	.....	50–54
40,141	13.4	66,741	20.7	51,558	36.9	896	31.0	781	9.5	55–59
20,523	6.8	33,388	10.4	22,293	16.0	1,321	45.6	4,169	50.5	60–64
7,717	2.6	11,794	3.7	7,603	5.4	643	22.2	3,308	40.1	65 and over
Years of service—men										
239,013	100.0	268,817	100.0	126,122	100.0	2,400	100.0	7,454	100.0	Total
.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Under 20
.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	20–24
.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	25–29
.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	30–34
6,214	2.6	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	35–39
54,441	22.8	8,591	3.2	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	40–44
76,160	31.9	77,503	28.8	7,340	5.8	.....	.....	.....	.....	45–49
54,247	22.7	95,537	35.5	46,814	37.1	34	1.4	.....	.....	50–54
29,299	12.3	54,027	20.1	46,643	37.0	735	30.6	643	8.6	55–59
13,897	5.8	25,256	9.4	19,273	15.3	1,160	48.3	3,825	51.3	60–64
4,755	2.0	7,903	2.9	6,052	4.8	471	19.6	2,986	40.1	65 and over
Years of service—women										
61,193	100.0	52,996	100.0	13,506	100.0	494	100.0	804	100.0	Total
.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	Under 20
.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	20–24
.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	25–29
.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	30–34
1,252	2.0	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	35–39
8,200	13.4	1,276	2.4	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	40–44
16,276	26.6	11,752	22.2	447	3.3	.....	.....	.....	.....	45–49
15,035	24.6	15,231	28.7	3,573	26.5	0	0.0	.....	.....	50–54
10,842	17.7	12,714	24.0	4,915	36.4	161	32.6	138	17.1	55–59
6,626	10.8	8,132	15.3	3,020	22.4	161	32.6	344	42.9	60–64
2,962	4.8	3,891	7.4	1,551	11.5	172	34.9	322	40.0	65 and over

Collective Bargaining's Midwife

The Federal Mediator

Government managers—to to bottom—are fast realizing the utility of the collective bargaining process as an instrument for personnel management. This is how Kenneth E. Moffett, Special Assistant to the Director of the Federal Mediation and Conciliation Service, sizes up the state of the art in an interview with David S. Dickinson, of the Civil Service Commission's Office of Labor Management Relations—an interview on the mediator's middleman role at the Federal bargaining table.

Q

Their low-visibility involvement at the bargaining table sometimes makes Federal mediators elusive images to the public eye. Mr. Moffett, just what sort of creatures are they?

A

First and foremost, Federal mediators give impartial assistance in the settlement of labor disputes in private industry and in the Federal and other public sectors of our economy.

They aid the parties in a dispute through the use of suggestions, persuasion, and sharing of knowledge; at no time do mediators make binding decisions on the parties. Mediators use many and varied techniques to solve labor relations problems, but primarily this is accomplished through the skillful use of joint and separate conferences with the parties involved.

The mediators' success most times is due to their personal acceptability to the parties—the confidential nature of their relationship—and not to their domination of the principals in the dispute. Thus, the low visibility and profile of professional staff of the Federal Mediation and Conciliation Service.

Mr. Dickinson, if you were to ask me for a thumbnail sketch of today's 255 Federal mediators (assigned to 78 cities throughout the United States), it might read as follows:

The average mediator is 51 years old, with 18½ years of actual collective bargaining experience.

Mediators come from varied backgrounds—40 percent management, 40 percent labor, 10 percent Government or academic, and 10 percent a combination of these. A conscious effort is made to retain the even balance between ex-labor and ex-management people in the Service.

Q

When did FMCS become extensively involved in the Federal program?

A

The FMCS was specifically designated for participation in collective bargaining in the Federal service in October 1969 by the provisions of Executive Order 11491. Let me read a bit from the Executive order—Section 16—which says:

"*Negotiation disputes.* The Federal Mediation and Conciliation Service shall provide services and assistance to Federal agencies and labor organizations in the resolution of negotiation disputes. The Service shall determine under what circumstances and in what manner it shall proffer its services."

This flowed from a recommendation by an interagency committee appointed by the President under the leadership of Chairman Robert E. Hampton of your Commission. The recommendation was based on FMCS experiences under the previous Executive Order 10988.

Q

What was the nature of this previous experience with Uncle Sam's labor-management disputes, Mr. Moffett?

A

When E.O. 10988 first was issued, FMCS did not get involved immediately; indeed, we had no official charter under that order to do so. Nonetheless, as agencies and unions began negotiating and calling for our help, we decided to be responsive—albeit on a limited and tentative basis.

Even prior to our charter under Executive Order 11491, you see, an employing agency and a union jointly could seek—and did seek—the services of a mediator when direct negotiations didn't result in an agreement. The Service established relatively narrow criteria for its pilot involvement under the old E.O. 10988—tied to joint requests for assistance where we felt we could be helpful.

On this limited basis, then, the Service did begin mediating a number of disputes between Federal employee organizations and their employing departments or agencies. But the criteria were designed to restrict severely the consideration of mediation requests and to limit drastically the drain on time and staff of mediators. It was a pilot project that demonstrated the usefulness of mediation in the Federal service.

Mediation availability flowed from the view that parties in disagreement should have a forum to which they can turn for assistance. Even though we were not obligated to serve in this manner, willingness to take part gave us some familiarity with the problem areas that are part of Federal service negotiations.

The assistance FMCS offered under Executive Order 10988 was limited and experimental, but enough information was gained to insure the Service a role under Section 16 of Executive Order 11491.

Q

What steps did FMCS take in tooling up for its current significant involvement under E.O. 11491?

A

There was FMCS-wide distribution of the Executive order, with historical developments and explanation. Policies and procedures were drawn up for implementing this new responsibility. Meetings were held with other people and agencies assigned responsibility under the Executive order. And in-house programs were set up in a hurry to familiarize the mediation staff with features of collective bargaining in the Federal service.

The limited FMCS experience under E.O. 10988 taught us that many mediation techniques used in the private sector were applicable in the Federal service, but the nomenclature, structure, and lack of crisis bargaining were different.

Early in the program, it was determined that we would assign Federal disputes to all staff members rather than establish a special cadre of "Federal specialists." By not having specialists, we could better serve the parties on shorter notice.

Q

Viewed from the mediator's perspective, what features distinguish impasses at the Federal bargaining table from those in private industry?

A

The absence of the strike weapon by either side immediately comes to mind. Other features have been lack of experience on both sides of the table, uncertainty of the parties as to what issues are properly for mediation as opposed to resolution by third parties, and constraints purposely or inadvertently placed on the management negotiating committee. Also, unawareness

of the mediator's function, acceptance of escalating the dispute within an activity or agency, using the negotiations as an exercise in deflating the other side, the ongoing search for appropriate subjects for negotiation.

Q

Could you elaborate on that somewhat: What special problems does the mediator face in the Federal context?

A

Since there are no time constraints or deadlines in Federal bargaining, negotiations may extend over long periods. The parties, both agency and union, appear to be in no rush to complete their agreement.

We found that it takes FMCS mediators an average of 6 months to complete an assignment in the Federal sector as compared to the average 1.2 months in the private sector. My guess is it took the parties even longer than 6 months, as FMCS computes its figures on just those cases in which mediators were directly involved and only for the mediation period, not from the time when bargaining actually began and ended.

Another problem mediators have faced when trying to zero in on an impasse situation is the variety of methods that can be used to frustrate and delay bargaining.

For example, several issues could be termed nonnegotiable by agency negotiators and appealed to the agency head and then to the Federal Labor Relations Council. Several other issues could be impassed and appealed to the Federal Service Impasses Panel, and the parties could be bargaining over the remainder—with an unfair-labor-practice charge brought by the union before the Assistant Secretary of Labor for Labor-Management Relations.

This is an extreme example, but one not outside the realm of possibility, and to a certain degree this sort of thing has figured in many bargaining situations.

Q

Extending the Federal-private comparison in another direction, how do the respective batting averages line up in terms of mediation success?

A

"Mediation success" is a difficult term to define in the private sector, and it is even more difficult to explain in the Federal area.

In the private sector, any time a settlement is made and a strike avoided, some would consider that a mediation success; but many of the most successful mediation jobs are done in the private sector cases in which strikes *do* occur. It is much easier, generally, to avoid a strike than it is to end one. Simply put, a mediation success occurs when the parties are satisfied with the agreement for which they mutually bargained, and the Service has assisted in this result.

We do not grade our mediators' ability on how many strikes they had or didn't have. Some strikes may be virtually unavoidable, and other strikes may be necessary to develop mutual respect or to correct a very difficult relationship.

Last year, the Service participated in 15,994 private sector cases—in 7,215 of them the mediator was directly involved at the bargaining table. Fourteen percent of these cases involved strikes.

In the Federal area where the parties cannot strike, the Service participated in 309 cases—in 180 of these a mediator participated directly. Twenty-seven—or 8 percent—of these cases were appealed to the Federal Service Impasses Panel. This figure is not directly comparable, though, as the Impasses Panel sent back many of the 27 cases appealed to it for further bargaining and mediation.

Many times, because of the parties' inexperience with the intricacies of collective bargaining, the Service was called in to mediate ground rules. After agreement was reached on "how to bargain," the mediator stepped out, and the parties successfully bargained and cooperatively reached an agreement on their own. In other cases, the mediator was requested after the parties became stalemated over a small number of issues and, after negotiating with a mediator present, an agreement was reached.

In the Federal area, most of a mediator's time is devoted to helping the parties learn their bargaining responsibilities and to preventive mediation—aimed at developing contract-administration and problem-solving ability. Dispute mediation continues to run a poor second to these categories. The reverse is true in the private sector.

This past year we had 261 such training-type situations in the Federal area. Some of these involved steward-foreman training programs, joint labor-management committees, training in collective bargaining, communications, and human relations.

We believe that both dispute mediation and training activities will continue to increase in about the same ratio through the next several years.

Q

How can parties on both sides of the Federal bargaining table make the mediator's job easier? Mr. Moffett, any tips for labor and management on this score?

A

After about 3 years under E.O. 11491, there are several suggestions I would make in that area.

I would urge the parties to send qualified, experienced bargainers to the table, people who have authority to act. So many times the bargainer is just a messenger for a higher authority. When this occurs, negotiations are delayed and frustrated.

Before requesting mediation, narrow the issues. Too often we are faced with issues that have not been discussed, let alone bargained over.

Do the homework, and be prepared to discuss in depth all issues in dispute. If a negotiability question comes up, have the facts to back up a position taken.

Thoroughly train the staff in collective bargaining.

Come to the collective bargaining table with a positive attitude.

Q

Could you illustrate these pointers by fleshing them out with actual case profiles?

A

We have seen more inexperienced local union officers and management personnel at the bargaining table than professional union staff or agency labor-relations types. This tells us two things—available funds are insufficient to release staff and/or the parties do not consider bargaining a high-priority item.

Long delays have been occasioned at the bargaining table as the bargainers, particularly agency representatives, attempt to get answers to questions raised in negotiations. The entire chain of command of an agency is sometimes contacted in an effort to get the answer on one issue.

Many times the parties have requested mediation too early. On occasion, we have been called in before negotiations start—sometimes when there are 100 issues outstanding and only two or three meetings have taken place on ground rules.

We have experienced long delays when the parties have had to research a question that had been proposed weeks before.

I cannot overemphasize the importance of training in collective bargaining and of positive leadership from the top in labor relations generally.

More and more, FMCS staffers have been commenting about the solid job done by the parties at the bargaining table. Training and experience are starting to pay dividends both in bargaining at the table and in day-to-day labor relations at the work place.

Q

About the 1971 amendments to E.O. 11491 broadening the area of negotiations with some meaningful economic items—how have they affected collective bargaining and mediation?

A

The 1971 amendments broadened the scope of bargaining and made the collective bargaining process more meaningful and viable. Agreements have been made in innumerable instances, both in the area of official time allowed and in the cost of the dues checkoff. It is interesting that in several agreements where the 40-hour provision for official time was negotiated, the renewal

negotiation of the agreement is now taking place.

Impasses have developed over scheduling of negotiations after a union has used the allotted 40 hours for negotiation. The agencies are willing to meet from 9 to 5, Monday through Friday; the unions want to meet after working hours and on Saturday and Sunday. The issue has now gone full circle, and the mediators find themselves in the same predicament they were in prior to the amendments when local union negotiators were off the clock during bargaining—we are having difficulty scheduling meetings at an hour agreeable to both sides.

Q

The Civil Service Commission is trying to broaden the scope of bargaining even more—through clarifications and changes in the Federal Personnel Manual. How is this likely to affect the mediator's role—in the short run and over the long haul?

A

We think Commission effort to broaden the scope of bargaining is positive and worthwhile. Federal labor-management relations undoubtedly will benefit if it is successful. The scope of bargaining in the Federal service is too restrictive and narrow.

Increasing the scope of bargaining will not solve all the ills of Federal bargaining, but it will go a long way toward giving the parties something more meaningful to bargain over.

A study of this past year's Federal mediation assignments showed that where the parties bargained over more than rudimentary subjects, negotiations with some substance took place.

What are issues of substance? Those issues which lend themselves to give and take between the parties, where compromise can be made, and where the parties jointly feel they can work toward a common goal.

The mediator's role will be enhanced greatly if the scope of bargaining is broadened.

Q

There's much speculation nowadays about the Federal labor-management relationship emerging from Phase I—organizing—and moving on to Phase II—negotiating. How does FMCS propose to cope with this change?

A

Initially, in 1969, we expected a greater workload in the Federal area. It did not develop. As a result, we didn't have to add additional staff—we merely absorbed the workload.

Now we note a slow but steady increase in our Federal caseload. Thus far, we have not had any difficulty in supplying mediators for the parties, but the day is fast approaching when we will have to increase our staff to meet the growing needs of the program.

Q

In keeping with this look ahead, how do you view the future of the Federal program and its projected impact on mediation?

A

My guess is we will have more Executive orders in the future as the need arises, but I doubt that there will be Federal legislation for Federal employees in the near future. It is much easier to change an Executive order than it is to change a Federal law. When a program is still in its infancy—as is Federal bargaining—there is a need to be flexible.

The opportunity to participate in the program has been fully accepted by Federal employees, as 53-percent union organization of Federal employees attests. And there is a developing expertise on the part of those responsible for conducting bargaining.

We feel there is a greater acceptance of mediation as a dispute-settlement technique. We also believe that in the future labor and management will seek to accommodate and settle their problems, rather than automatically escalate to the next forum in the Federal dispute settlement procedure.

I hope the scope of bargaining, in terms of bargainable issues, will continue to expand. Complementing this is the trend toward broader units and multi-unit negotiations, which tend to elevate the level of dealings to the locus of decision-making authority.

One of the major problems we sometimes face in Federal bargaining is coping with a mental set on the part of some agencies—a mental set that is anti-collective bargaining. And although Federal unions continue to lobby on Capitol Hill at a brisk pace, I believe they are recognizing that the best way to attract and retain members is to come up with a good agreement.

As one who believes strongly in the free, voluntary exercise of the collective bargaining process, I am certain that labor and management—working together—can make bargaining in the Federal sector a viable, representative, and important part of the picture. The FMCS is committed to this end.

The U.S. Civil Service Commission has announced its allocation of Federal grant funds available to State and local governments for FY 1973 under the Intergovernmental Personnel Act.

IPA grants are made to help upgrade the quality of public service by improving personnel systems and practices and by training State and local government employees. The training includes Government Service Fellowships, which provide for up to 2 years of full-time graduate-level study.

STATE	TOTAL STATE ALLOCATION	MINIMUM SHARE FOR LOCAL GOVERNMENT NEEDS*
Alabama	$ 194,000	$ 97,000
Alaska	70,000	35,000
Arizona	109,000	54,500
Arkansas	109,000	54,500
California	1,203,000	712,176
Colorado	142,000	71,000
Connecticut	170,000	102,799
Delaware	70,000	35,000
District of Columbia	70,000	.....
Florida	409,000	204,500
Georgia	264,000	132,000
Hawaii	70,000	35,000
Idaho	70,000	35,000
Illinois	621,000	310,500
Indiana	294,000	147,000
Iowa	170,000	85,000
Kansas	140,000	70,000
Kentucky	179,000	89,500
Louisiana	220,000	110,000
Maine	70,000	35,000
Maryland	233,000	156,576
Massachusetts	328,000	203,721
Michigan	515,000	257,500
Minnesota	231,000	118,919
Mississippi	133,000	66,500
Missouri	269,000	134,500
Montana	70,000	35,000
Nebraska	93,000	46,500
Nevada	70,000	35,952
New Hampshire	70,000	35,000
New Jersey	403,000	254,495
New Mexico	70,000	35,000
New York	1,192,000	873,259
North Carolina	293,000	182,832
North Dakota	70,000	35,000
Ohio	586,000	322,359
Oklahoma	154,000	77,000
Oregon	130,000	65,000
Pennsylvania	633,000	316,500
Rhode Island	70,000	35,000
South Carolina	150,000	75,000
South Dakota	70,000	35,000
Tennessee	234,000	147,092
Texas	652,000	326,000
Utah	70,000	35,000
Vermont	70,000	35,000
Virginia	272,000	166,654
Washington	208,000	104,000
West Virginia	103,000	51,500
Wisconsin	262,000	159,637
Wyoming	70,000	35,000
TOTAL	$ 12,418,000	$ 6,871,971

* Must be at least 50 percent of the State's total allocation.

The IPA grants are made on a matching-fund basis, with the law authorizing the Civil Service Commission to support up to 75 percent of the cost of approved projects.

Congress has appropriated $15 million for IPA grants this year—an increase of 20 percent over the $12.5 million appropriated last year. The law requires the Commission to allocate 80 percent, or $12 million, among the States and the District of Columbia on a formula basis that takes into account each State's population and the number of public employees each has at the State and local levels.

Twenty percent of the grant appropriation, or $3 million, is available to the Commission for discretionary allocation. The Commission has allocated $418,000 of this amount to assure every State a minimum allocation of $70,000. These funds are allocated to those States in which application of the formula would have resulted in an allocation of less than $70,000.

At least 50 percent of the amount allocated to a State must be used for local government needs. The minimum share for local government needs is determined by a formula based on local government employment and expenditures.

In addition to the $418,000 being used to provide minimum State allocations, the Commission has $2,582,000 of its $3 million discretionary appropriation available for use for such purposes as special high-priority projects, grants to the Commonwealth of Puerto Rico and to Territorial governments, and grants to certain non-profit organizations engaged in training State and local government employees.

To obtain a grant, a State or local government must submit an acceptable application to one of the Commission's regional offices. The District of Columbia Government or an eligible non-government organization proposing a nationwide training program must apply direct to the Bureau of Intergovernmental Personnel Programs in the Commission's central office.

CSC Chairman Robert E. Hampton, in announcing the FY 1973 allocations, said, "The wide range and general quality of projects funded during the first year show that State and local government executives are utilizing this new source of assistance in a cooperative and imaginative way to meet their real needs."

CSC regional offices, upon request, will work with designated representatives of Governors and local government chief executives in the development of programs and grant applications.

Total State allocations and minimum local government shares for FY 1973 are shown in the table on page 35.

—Lea Guarraia

TRAINING DIGEST

Management Today—Modern Concepts and Practices

Participants from throughout the world are attending the Commission's management development seminar, "Management Today."

Organized in June 1972 by the Bureau of Training's General Management Training Center, in cooperation with the Agency for International Development, the program is designed for the training participant who has come to the United States for technical training but will face management responsibilities upon return to his home country. Two 2-week seminars were held in June, and ten seminars are scheduled for FY 1973.

Each seminar consists of approximately 80 hours of directed activity at the middle management level. A variety of management concepts, supplemented by case studies and motivational exercises drawing on the participants' personal and cultural experiences, dramatize the importance of sound management in the home country work environment.

A special feature of the program is a back-home type of planning conference during which a participant receives individual help in making plans for application of what has been learned in the seminar and during his training tour in the United States.

The Commission's training facilities at 1900 E St. NW. in Washington are utilized for the seminar. About a third of the program is led by university professors, most with foreign experience and from outstanding universities in the United States.

The great bulk of the program draws upon the General Management Training Center's on-going training and management development programs. Twenty-five participants are scheduled for each seminar to assure maximum participation and opportunity for assistance on problems. The program is oriented toward the public sector in developing countries as most AID-sponsored participants are from this sector.

Countries represented thus far include Afghanistan, Bolivia, Brazil, Colombia, Dominican Republic, British Honduras, Egypt, Ethiopia, Ghana, Indonesia, Korea, Nigeria, Philippines, Sierra Leone, Tanzania, Thailand, Tunisia, Turkey, Uganda, and Vietnam.

—Janet N. Smith

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WORTH NOTING (CONT.)

started with preconceptions and followed up with a search for findings to support them.

In a 35-page analysis, the Commission examined 53 specific recommendations of the Nader report, indicating Commission agreement with 6 in whole or in part; rejection of 22; and further study of 25 others being considered by the Commission without reference to the Nader inquiry and generally preceding evidence of Nader Group interest.

☐ MID-CAREER EDUCATION for potentially policy-level executives is the objective of two programs for which 121 Federal employees have recently been selected.

95 employees from 23 different Federal departments and agencies were picked for a year of graduate study in the Education for Public Management program in 1972–73. Each participant is provided a year of graduate study in any one of nine participating universities in subjects needed to equip him or her to handle the broad and complex problems facing career executives in Government. Participants are between the ages of 25 and 48, and range in grade from GS–11 to GS–15.

26 Federal employees, 8 political scientists, 6 journalists, and one law professor have been selected as Fellows for the 1972–73 Congressional Operations program administered jointly by the Civil Service Commission and the American Political Science Association. The one-year fellowship is designed to give selectees a thorough understanding of Congressional operations.

☐ TEST DATES for 1973 summer jobs in Federal agencies have been announced by the Civil Service Commission. Candidates whose applications were received by November 24, 1972, will be tested January 26, 1973; those whose applications are received by December 29 will be tested February 10; and those whose applications are postmarked by January 26 will be tested March 10. Applications postmarked after January 26 will not be accepted. Complete instructions and information on summer opportunities available are contained in CSC Announcement No. 414.

Applicants rated eligible in 1972 on the basis of the written test need not be tested again unless they wish to improve their scores. All 1972 eligibles will be sent special forms to update their qualifications and indicate availability for 1973 employment.

☐ BLUE CROSS-BLUE SHIELD has agreed to pay "supplemental benefits" related to diagnostic hospital admissions in 1971 and 1972. Supplemental benefits are subject to a deductible, while basic benefits are not. Previously, the Government-Wide Service Benefit Plan operated by the Blues had been denying claims for hospital room, board, and related medical care connected with hospital admissions solely for diagnostic tests. Payments for the diagnostic tests themselves have been made under basic benefits.

Federal employees or annuitants whose benefit claims related to diagnostic admissions have been rejected by the Blues should now submit a supplemental benefits claim for these expenses to their local Blue Cross-Blue Shield plan. Claims for expenses incurred in 1971 and 1972 must be submitted by December 31, 1973.

☐ QUOTAS AND GOALS: On August 18 CSC Chairman Hampton sent Federal agency heads a memorandum citing President Nixon's clear opposition to quotas in Federal employment and his support of merit staffing concepts. The President reemphasized his support of affirmative action in achieving equal opportunity and said that numerical goals, although an important and useful tool to measure progress, must not be allowed to result in the imposition of fixed quotas, which are contrary to the merit principle.

Chairman Hampton pointed out that the Federal Government, operating under merit concepts, has made more progress in EEO than any major employer in America, and there will be no easing of affirmative action efforts to achieve further progress.

—Bacil B. Warren

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